

THE EFFECT OF GOAL ORIENTATION, MODEL IDEALISATION, AND MESSAGE FRAMING ON THE EFFECTIVENESS OF COSMETICS ADVERTISING

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ABSTRACT

Women from across the globe purchase and consume cosmetics in order to achieve their appearance goals and it is generally agreed that a consumers' goal orientation may influence their interpretation of advertising materials and thus the purchase decision-making process. The cosmetics industry promotes their products using almost exclusively images of attractive, young, highly idealised women, and thus has a significant influence on female appearance ideals worldwide. Extensive research connects viewing idealised images to negative outcomes for consumers' self-concept, however there are mixed results regarding the effectiveness of idealised models in advertising. Moreover, there are mixed results regarding the effectiveness of different message frames. The overall aim of this thesis is to investigate the effects of possible selves and cosmetic advertising on the consumption of cosmetic products. This research draws together areas of literature which have been studied in varying settings in order to determine the individual and collective effects of these independent variables; possible selves, model idealisation and message framing, on women's attitude toward cosmetic advertisements and purchase intentions in the cosmetic product context.

To understand the effects that goal orientation, as well as the images and text of cosmetic advertisements have on cosmetics consumption, an online experiment was conducted using a 2x3x2 between-subjects factorial design. The study manipulated three independent variables, namely, salient possible self (hoped-for and feared), model idealisation (more idealised model, less idealised model and no model) and regulatory message framing (desired reference and undesired reference) and measured the impact of these variables on attitude toward the ad and resulting purchase intention. The final data set was comprised of 420 responses from 18-35 year old females.

A series of ANCOVA analyses were used to determine the effects of possible selves, model idealisation and message frames on consumers' attitude toward the ad and their purchase intention. The results indicate hoped-for selves, no model advertisements and desired message frames are independently the most effective in the cosmetics context. However, the goal-compatibility hypothesis was not supported. Furthermore, findings indicate an interaction between the image and the message of cosmetics advertising, which suggests cosmetic advertisers must carefully consider the combination of the images and messages they use to promote their brand and products. The theoretical and managerial implications, as well as direction for future research are discussed.

1 THESIS OVERVIEW

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Use of cosmetic products to enhance or change ones appearance is a longstanding human behaviour. Varying types and applications of cosmetic products are present in almost every society in human history (Cash, Rissi, & Chapman, 1985; Gupta, 2013; Khraim, 2011; Kumar, 2005). Today, the reported revenue of the cosmetics industry in the United States is \$56.63 billion dollars (statista.com, 2014). Reportedly 91.4% of women use at least some cosmetic products regularly (Dickman, 2010) and this phenomenon has been described as a ‘beauty obsession’ (Britton, 2012). Furthermore, the landscape of the cosmetics industry is changing; the market is becoming increasingly globalised (Kumar, 2005) and Western appearance ideals are affecting more cultures (Bakhshi, 2011). As cosmetic brands globalise, so does their advertising (Kumar, 2005), which typically features highly attractive females advertising the products (Apaolaza-Ibáñez, Hartmann, Diehl, & Terlutter, 2011). In the United States alone, the beauty industry spends approximately \$3.59 billion USD on advertising (statista.com, 2013) and every day we are exposed to numerous advertisements in magazines, on television, via the Internet and in the streets (Wanke, 2008).

Considering the size of the cosmetics industry, the advertising spend and prevalence of cosmetic product use there is a surprising lack of literature exploring cosmetics advertising and cosmetics users. The aim of this research is to understand how a persons’ goal oriented salient possible selves impact on their perception of cosmetics advertising and resulting purchase intention. The two aspects of cosmetic advertising considered are the appearance ideal depicted and the message frame of the appeal.

Experiencing multiple selves has been identified as a theme in relation to cosmetics use (Liu, Keeling, & Hogg, 2012) and there has been substantial research theorising possible selves (or comparable theories) and their impact on goal behaviour and attainment (Hoyle & Sherrill, 2006; Knobloch-Westerwick, Kennard, Westerwick, Willis, & Gong, 2013; Patrick, MacInnis, & Folkes, 2002). However, little research relates these differing selves and associated goals to preference for cosmetic products (see Sobh, 2011) and there is a lack of research which extends this concept to product advertising. Similarly, extensive research has been carried out examining the effects of exposure to appearance ideals in advertising (Cahill

& Mussap, 2007; Joseph, 1982; Nichols & Schumann, 2012), but there is an absence of literature considering the interaction of appearance ideals and advertisement copy. The relationship between consumers' goal and advertising message frames has been studied by several authors and the aptly named match-up hypothesis suggests that when a consumers' goal and an advertisement are congruent, the advertisement becomes more persuasive (Aaker & Lee, 2001; Kareklas, Carlson, & Muehling, 2012; Kim, 2006).

This introductory chapter will preview the literature on cosmetics and introduce the three key supporting concepts of this research; namely goal orientation, appearance ideals and message framing. Subsequently the proposed research questions are presented, followed by a summary of the research methodology. Finally, this chapter discusses the envisioned theoretical and practical contributions of this study.

1.2 RESEARCH BACKGROUND

The primary aim of this research is to understand how a persons' salient possible self interacts with their perception of cosmetics advertising using different appearance ideals and message frames, and produces purchase intentions for the advertised cosmetic product. However, in order to do so, a secondary role of this study is to bridge gaps between the three key topic areas. Therefore, it is important to examine the existing literature in each area and to determine what is understood of the interactions between these topics.

Much of the extant cosmetics literature focusses on characteristics of cosmetic consumers, such as their self-esteem, self-consciousness, locus of control, emotional stability, and body-focussed anxiety (Cash & Cash, 1982; Cash et al., 1985; Robertson, Fieldman, & Hussey, 2008). Research has also been carried out establishing the influence of cosmetics, both on the users themselves and on the thoughts and behaviours of others. Wearing cosmetics can improve women's feelings of attractiveness, well-being and self-confidence (Apaolaza-Ibáñez et al., 2011; Bloch & Richins, 1992; Nash, Fieldman, Hussey, Lévesque, & Pineau, 2006). In addition, it is possible that these internal improvements may even be reflected in a person's outward appearance (Mulhern, Fieldman, Hussey, Lévesque, & Pineau, 2003; Nash et al., 2006) because women are judged more attractive, feminine, healthier and more competent professionally (Cash, Dawson, Davis, Bowen, & Galumbeck, 1989; Mulhern et al., 2003; Nash et al., 2006; Workman & Johnson, 1991). These findings tie in with the 'what is beautiful is good' hypothesis (Dion, Berscheid, & Walster, 1972).

An individual's goals may be complex and shifting (Carver, 2006; Zimmerman & Kitsantas, 1997) and it is widely acknowledged that consumers purchase products and services in order to minimise the gap between a real and ideal self (Solomon, Polegato, & Zaichkowsky, 2009). Some authors have touched on the concept that consumers use cosmetics to achieve their appearance goals (Apaolaza-Ibáñez et al., 2011; Bloch & Richins, 1992; Guthrie, Kim, & Jung, 2008; Richins, 1991). Sobh (2011) extended this notion and investigated the effects of manipulating consumers' goal orientation in the anti-aging category of cosmetics, and Liu et al. (2012) explored the contradictory selves which influence different cosmetic consumption behaviours. However, as noted earlier, there is still little research in this area. In order to simplify the notion of appearance goals, this research adopts the view that there are several possible selves, those we fear and avoid as well as those we aspire to (Markus & Nurius, 1986) which can be activated using priming scenarios (Sobh, 2011; Sobh & Martin, 2011). Furthermore, the current research extends this concept to explore whether there is an interaction between the salient selves and advertising.

In general, literature considering cosmetic advertising is limited, which is somewhat surprising considering the attention appearance ideals has received from body self-relations researchers (e.g. Durkin & Paxton, 2002; Grabe, Ward, & Hyde, 2008; Heinberg, Thompson, & Stormer, 1995; López-Guimerà, Levine, Sánchez-carracedo, & Fauquet, 2010) and the media alike (Adams, 2013; Diller, 2011; Lyons, 2014). There is an extensive mix of research pertaining to appearance ideals essentially accusing digital alteration of models, which is characteristic of fashion advertising, of negatively effects for self-esteem, body image and other self-concept variables (Groesz, Levine, & Murnen, 2002; Holmstrom, 2004; Posavac, Posavac, & Posavac, 1998; Want, 2009). In addition, idealised images have been connected with the development of eating disorders (Cahill & Mussap, 2007; Heinberg et al., 1995). Despite obvious digital retouching of cosmetic advertisements, which blur the line between attainability and aspirational results, which “no consumer could possibly achieve” (Rea, 2012, p. 163), few authors have explored beauty ideals in cosmetic advertising. One exception is Apaolaza-Ibáñez et al. (2011), who discussed the advertising technique of lowering a viewer's self-concept by exposing them to highly perfected models and then delivering relief from these negative feelings through use of the product.

The effectiveness of different message framing of advertisements has been studied in a variety of contexts, from selling deodorant (Kulkarni & Yuan, 2014), clothing (Kim & Sung,

2013) and dental products (Arora, 2007; Chang, 2007) to encouraging anti-smoking (Kim, 2006) and sun safety (Cesario, Corker, & Jelinek, 2013; Hevey et al., 2010; Thomas et al., 2011). There are mixed results regarding which message frame is more effective and more recently the field has turned towards identifying individual differences which influence the effectiveness of these messages (Cesario et al., 2013; Cheng & Wu, 2010; Latimer, Salovey, & Rothman, 2007). An alternative theory drawing from the notion of individual differences and message frame effectiveness is the Zinkhan and Hong (1991) congruency model, also referred to as goal compatibility, which suggests messages are more persuasive when they are congruent with the goals or even primed goals of advertisement viewers (Aaker & Lee, 2001; Kareklas et al., 2012).

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This research seeks to understand how a persons' salient possible self interacts with cosmetic advertising, affecting purchase intentions for the advertised cosmetic product. To do so, several research questions are provided to guide enquiry. There are four research questions, three specific to the three key topic areas this research addresses, and the final research question reflects the overarching aim of the current study.

Sobh (2011) demonstrated goal orientation priming could influence women's intention to use different anti-aging treatments, however, little is understood of the role of possible selves in the context of cosmetics. Given this, the current study seeks to explore:

RQ1: How does goal oriented possible selves priming (hoped-for or feared self saliency) affect cosmetic product purchase intentions?

However, consumers' cosmetic purchases are driven not only by their goals, but are also influenced by product advertisements too (Antioco, Smeesters, & Le Boedec, 2012). There are several aspects of an advertisement which can be controlled by the marketer, and thus are able to be manipulated in an experiment. One of these aspects is the image which appears in a cosmetic product advertisement. Empirical studies have suggested viewing idealised images can negatively affect body image compared to regular models or neutral images (Cahill & Mussap, 2007; Egbert & Belcher, 2012; Ferraro et al., 2008). Therefore, the current study intends to investigate the use of different images in cosmetics advertising. Thus:

RQ2: What effect does exposure to beauty ideals cosmetic advertising images (idealised model, non-idealised model or no-model) have on cosmetic product purchase intentions?

In addition to investigating images in cosmetic advertising, this research also attempts to understand the effects of the copy in cosmetics advertising. Cosmetic product messages often focus on either enhancing a feature (desired) or correct a flaw (undesired). In order to explore this component the third research question is posed:

RQ3: How does the regulatory-referenced message framing (desired versus undesired reference) in cosmetic advertising impact on consumers' intention to purchase?

Finally, this research will investigate the interaction between goal orientation (hoped-for self or feared self), body ideal exposure (idealised model, non-idealised model or no model) and message framing (desired or undesired) on cosmetic product purchase intentions. This overarching aim of the current research is addressed in the fourth and final research question:

RQ4: How do variations of goal orientation, beauty ideal exposure and message framing effect attitude toward cosmetic product advertisements and resulting purchase intention of cosmetic products.

1.4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This research explores consumer responses to variations in goal orientation and advertisement content, which can be measured by manipulating these variables in an experimental design. Consequently, this research adopts a 2x3x2 between-subjects full factorial design to test the effects of goal orientation, appearance ideals and message frames on consumers' attitude to an ad and intention to purchase the advertised cosmetic product.

1.5 RESEARCH CONTRIBUTIONS

Both theoretical and practical contributions are anticipated for the current research. Specifically, this research is expected to yield contributions to three key fields of the marketing discipline – goal orientation, appearance ideals and message framing. Furthermore, this research is expected to provide marketing and brand managers of cosmetic products with valuable insights for developing their advertisements and targeting them effectively.

1.5.1 THEORETICAL CONTRIBUTIONS

This research contributes to literature in three large theoretical areas, the possible selves literature within the goal orientation field, the appearance ideals literature – specifically beauty ideals, and message framing literature which has yet to understand the effects of regulatory referencing messages.

1.5.1.1 *Goal Orientation*

This research extends the self-concept segment the of goal orientation literature, which bridges the marketing and psychology literature. The study is lensed through Markus and Nurius (1986) possible selves concept, in an appearance related context (see Sobh, 2011). Findings will further our understanding of the role of possible selves in consumption, particularly for appearance related products.

1.5.1.2 *Beauty Ideals*

This research also contributes to the extensive field examining the effects of exposure to ideals, which is explored by authors from a variety of perspectives including gender, body image, eating disorders and media and communications. Specifically, this study will contribute to the area of using ideals to advertise products, particularly the literature pertaining to the use of ideals in attractiveness relevant categories.

1.5.1.3 *Message Framing*

In addition, this research further addresses the effectiveness of advertising message frames, specifically in the cosmetic product context – an industry which has received surprisingly little attention from message framing scholars. Furthermore, this study supplements the literature on goal compatibility; effectively applying a theory typically associated with regulatory focus to the closely associated concept of regulatory referencing.

1.5.2 PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

This research is expected to provide marketing managers with quantifiable insights into consumer (rather than brand) based consequences of different images and messages in their advertising as well as improving understanding of which consumer goals are compatible with different advertisements. Furthermore, this research intends to encourage advertisers to use less idealised images of women in their advertisements, demonstrating the inability for highly digitally altered images to actually create a better perception of an advertisement or improve purchase intentions.

1.6 THESIS OUTLINE

This thesis consists of six chapters which are followed by a reference list and finally, appendices. This section outlines the contents of each of the chapters.

This chapter introduced the research by providing an overview of the three key topic areas, goal orientation, appearance ideals and message framing, as well as introducing cosmetics as the context of the study. This chapter then presented the proposed research questions and explained the intended research methodology. Finally, this chapter outlined both the theoretical and practical implications of this research.

Chapter Two, Literature Review, discusses in-depth the relevant cosmetics, goal orientation, appearance ideals and message framing literature. Firstly, an overview of what is known about cosmetics in each of the key areas is discussed. Goal orientation is discussed in regard to the various self-concept theories and the possible selves theory is selected as the framework for this study (Markus & Nurius, 1986). The effects or non-effects of exposing individuals to idealised images are covered before exploring the message framing literature.

The third chapter, Conceptual Framework and Hypotheses, uses existing literature to formulate hypotheses, which are incorporated into a proposed model. This chapter also discusses the covariates which are considered in this research.

Chapter Four, Methodology, covers the methodological components of this study. A detailed outline of the process of developing the final study is presented, including interviews, pre-studies and a full pre-test. In addition, the ethical considerations and the respondent recruitment method are discussed.

Chapter Five, Results, presents the findings of the experiment, including a sample overview, manipulation checks and hypotheses testing. Furthermore, this chapter tests the proposed conceptual model using Partial Least Squares path analysis.

The sixth and final chapter, Discussion and Conclusion, draws together the literature and the results to discuss the findings and implications of the current research. The limitations of the study are outlined and finally, suggestions for future research are given.

1.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This first chapter has provided a background for the current research. The topic and the purpose of the current research were introduced, which was, to understand how a persons' goal oriented salient possible self impacts on their perception of cosmetic advertising, featuring differing images and messages, and how these factors create a product purchase intention. This chapter then gave a brief summary of each of the three key topics areas, goal orientation, appearance ideals and message framing. Following this, the research questions and the expected contributions of the study were considered. Finally, to serve as a guide for the remaining chapters, a thesis outline was presented.

2 LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter provides the theoretical background of the current research. This chapter first addresses the cosmetics literature, which serves as both an introduction to this research and a context in which to interpret the remainder of the literature review. The cosmetics section examines cosmetic users, their goals and the outcomes of cosmetic use as well as discussing the images and copy of cosmetic advertisements. The subsequent section explores possible selves as a subset of the goal orientation literature, a concept which informs a large aspect of this research. Next, this chapter describes appearance ideals and reports the effects of exposure to idealised images in various settings. Finally, the message framing literature is reviewed making careful distinctions between framing typologies. This section also includes a discussion of the links between message framing and goal orientation. This chapter provides a foundation for the conceptual model and accompanying hypotheses presented in Chapter Three.

2.1 CONTEXT OF THE STUDY - COSMETICS

Firstly, the parameters of this study must be outlined. Due to the fast moving nature of the cosmetics industry many definitions or categorisations of cosmetics have become overlapping or obsolete. The cosmetics industry is heavily segmented and is generally divided into hair care, skin care, makeup and colour cosmetics, perfumes and fragrances, oral hygiene, bath and shower, deodorants, men's toiletries, children and baby care and sun care (Weber & de Villebonne, 2002). Similarly, Kumar (2005, p. 1264) classified the "cosmetic, toiletry and fragrance" industry into skin care, hair care, fragrance, personal hygiene, and makeup (which comprises of face makeup, lipstick, eye makeup and nail products). Other academics have discussed differing categories such as the inclusion of hair removal, anti-aging and even weight loss products, as well as distinguishing between colour cosmetics and nail enamel (Gupta, 2013; Hansen, Reed, & Waters, 1986). The U.S. Food and Drug Administration, a regulatory body in the cosmetics industry, defines cosmetics as products "applied to the human body for cleansing, beautifying, promoting attractiveness or altering the appearance" (U.S. F.D.A, n.d.).

Despite the F.D.A's inclusive definition, both literature and society often use the terms 'cosmetics' and 'makeup' interchangeably, implying the exclusion of products such as

deodorants, bath and shower products and sun care from the common operationalisation of ‘cosmetics’. The use of the terms cosmetics and makeup interchangeably is consistent with The Cash Cosmetics Use Inventory, which evaluates cosmetic use for ten different cosmetic products; foundation, face powder, concealer, mascara, eye liner, eye shadow, eyebrow pencil, lipstick, lip gloss, lip liner and blush (CCUI Cash & Cash, 1982; Cash et al., 1985). A further source of confusion is cosmeceuticals, which are an emerging intersection of the cosmetics and medicinal industries (Kumar, 2005; Meng & Pan, 2012). Currently, the term cosmeceutical is not recognised by law (U.S. F.D.A, n.d.) but refers to cosmetics with medicinal or drug like benefits, including those with ‘functional ingredients’ (Kumar, 2005).

The current study focusses on facial colour cosmetics, such as those listed in the Cash Cosmetics Use Inventory (CCUI Cash & Cash, 1982). For simplicity and in order to maintain consistency with much of the extant research, this study uses the terms cosmetics or cosmetic products to refer to this makeup or colour cosmetics segment of the overall cosmetics industry. This study does not include cosmeceutical products as they differ from conventional cosmetic products (Meng & Pan, 2012).

2.1.1 GOALS AND OUTCOMES OF COSMETIC USE

Several researchers have investigated cosmetic use and found numerous reasons for the purchase and application of such products (Nash et al., 2006). Bloch and Richins (1992) discussed the use of adornments such as cosmetics to fulfil goals of improved attractiveness. Cosmetic use reflects pride in one’s appearance (Cash et al., 1985) and these products are applied as a means of controlling physical appearance (Apaolaza-Ibáñez et al., 2011), self-expression (Davies, 2013; Guthrie et al., 2008), aesthetic self-enhancement (Cash et al., 1985; Richins, 1991), self-investigation (Nash et al., 2006), and in order to achieve self-presentation goals (Guthrie et al., 2008). Women wear makeup for both physical and psychological reasons, citing ‘liking the way it made them look’ (48% of women), ‘hiding flaws’ (44% of women) and ‘making themselves feel good’ (32%) as the main reasons for cosmetic use (The Renfrew Center Foundation, 2012). Gender roles and societal expectations have been identified as part of the motivation behind women’s cosmetic use (Bloch & Richins, 1992; Cash et al., 1985; Kelson, Kearney-Cooke, & Lansky, 1990).

Although the notion of applying possible selves to the consumption of products is not new (Morgan, 1993), there is extremely limited literature exploring goal related possible selves in regard to cosmetics. Some cosmetics authors have touched on motivations of cosmetic usage,

(Cash & Cash, 1982; Dickman, 2010; Solomon et al., 2009). Sobh (2011) explored how different appearance goals impacted on the intention to use a variety of anti-aging products including facial crèmes and anti-aging serums. Liu et al. (2012) identified the role of what they referred to as ‘contradictory selves’ when discussing cosmetic use in the case study of ‘Martha’. Their description of contradictory selves is consistent with the concept of possible selves, discussed in a later section of this review.

Some researchers have identified personality traits and individual characteristics which play a role in women’s cosmetic use. Logically, how women feel about their appearance has been linked to their use of cosmetic products, specifically dissatisfaction with physical appearance (Cash & Cash, 1982) and facial appearance (Guthrie et al., 2008). Women who are publicly self-conscious are found to use more cosmetics (Cash & Cash, 1982; Cash et al., 1985) and an internal locus of control has been linked to situational cosmetics use (Cash et al., 1985). Some studies explore cosmetics use as function of self-esteem (Bloch & Richins, 1992; Cash & Cash, 1982; Robertson et al., 2008) however, domains of self-concept are often masked by self-esteem and several self-esteem measures overlook aspects of female self-esteem (Knox, Funk, Elliot, & Bush, 1998). In contrast, Britton (2012) found no correlation between self-esteem and cosmetic usage, however self-monitoring did have an impact. A model produced by Robertson et al. (2008) indicates social confidence, emotional stability, self-esteem and physical attractiveness are negatively associated with cosmetic use, while anxiety, conformity and self-presentation all positively correlated with cosmetic use. Taken together, many of these results suggest an individual’s characteristics influence the strength and direction of appearance goals, thus impacting on their cosmetics use. The current research considers several of these personality constructs in the covariates section of the following chapter.

Several researchers have reported cosmetic use can positively influence the users themselves. When wearing cosmetics women report feeling more attractive (Apaolaza-Ibáñez et al., 2011; Bloch & Richins, 1992; Richins, 1991) and can even enhance ones feelings of overall well-being (Bloch & Richins, 1992; Nash et al., 2006). Women also experience higher self-confidence when wearing cosmetic products (Nash et al., 2006), and it is possible that this feeling of increased confidence reinforces the continued and even increased use of cosmetic products (Guthrie et al., 2008). This notion is consistent with the self-regulation feedback loop described in concept theory (Carver & Scheier, 1981, 1982), which is

addressed in the following goal orientation section. Interestingly, some men also experience improved confidence when using cosmetics (Souiden & Diagne, 2009). Several researchers postulate that cosmetics not only influence user's feelings but that increased self-esteem and attractiveness might be reflected in a person's outward appearance (Mulhern et al., 2003; Nash et al., 2006).

In addition to influencing how the user thinks and behaves, cosmetics can also influence the thoughts and behaviours of others. Several studies have suggested cosmetics can influence the perception of a woman. Cosmetic use significantly enhances the impression of a woman's femininity (Cox & Glick, 1986; Workman & Johnson, 1991) and consequently female faces are consistently judged more attractive when wearing cosmetics (Cash et al., 1989; Mulhern et al., 2003; Nash et al., 2006). Not only do cosmetics have beautifying effects on women's faces, they also affect perceptions of health, confidence, professional competency and earning potential (Nash et al., 2006), however there is some slightly contradictory evidence of cosmetic application negatively impacting on expected performance in gender-typed careers (Cox & Glick, 1986). Even behaviour can be influenced by cosmetics, as several studies have reported waitresses cosmetic use enhances tipping behaviour from male customers (Guéguen & Jacob, 2012; Jacob, Guéguen, Boulbry, & Ardiccioni, 2010).

2.1.2 COSMETIC ADVERTISING

Advertising is one of the primary tools for controlling, directing and shaping consumerism in the cosmetic industry (Harrison, 2008) and these products are widely promoted through multiple channels (Meng & Pan, 2012), including television, magazines, direct mailers and the Internet. Many of these channels occupy considerable amounts of our time (Bell & Dittmar, 2011). When considering cosmetic advertising, the image and the copy are two key components. The visual portion of the ad must work in a synergistic fashion with the headline and copy to produce an effective image (Belch, Belch, Kerr, & Powell, 2009); and in her study of men's mascara adverts Harrison (2008) stressed that researchers need to understand how images and text relate to one other semantically in order to draw conclusions.

When advertising products where qualities are hard to differentiate before use, such as cosmetics, the imagery of ads are often the basis of the appeal (Belch et al., 2009). Cosmetic advertisers traditionally select highly attractive models (Apaolaza-Ibáñez et al., 2011), presumably, in the hope that consumers will associate her physical attractiveness with the

brand (Belch et al., 2009), thus influencing consumers to buy their brand (Antioco et al., 2012). One of the mechanisms employed in cosmetic advertising is to lower self-perception by exposing consumers to highly attractive models, then deliver relief from the resulting dissatisfaction through purchase and use of the brand and products (Apaolaza-Ibáñez et al., 2011). In support of this observation, a study which extensively investigated the effects of a body cream advertisement on women aged between 18 and 65, found self-esteem was significantly higher after exposure to a non-idealised model than an idealised model, which was moderated by self-esteem before exposure, perception of own beauty, place of residence, age and socio-professional category (Antioco et al., 2012). Interestingly, Antioco et al. (2012) revealed participants with high self-esteem prior to exposure reported a more positive attitude and higher purchase intention when exposed to idealised models than non-idealised models. Essentially, people who were already confident responded more positively to advertisements with idealised models.

Public awareness of the extent to which models are edited in advertising has begun to increase (Diller, 2011), to the point where highly digitally altered images gain significant media and social media attention (Adams, 2013; Krashinsky, 2013; Lankston, 2014; Lyons, 2014). The Advertising Standards Authority (ASA) has even banned some cosmetics advertisement for misleading retouching (Rea, 2012). In response, some advertising in the cosmetics and body care industry has begun to feature models that do not fit this narrow appearance ideal. *Unilever's* brand, *Dove*, embarked on a widely recognised 'Campaign for Real Beauty' which showcased everyday women rather than professional models (Millard, 2009; Nichols & Schumann, 2012), however, the positive results of this campaign have sometimes been attributed to its provocative nature, rather than the images themselves (Antioco et al., 2012). Other brands such as *CoverGirl* and *Revlon* have also begun to include non-traditional models in their advertising (Antioco et al., 2012; Nichols & Schumann, 2012). Furthermore, beauty giant *Sephora* released an un-retouched advertising campaign for their *Make Up For Ever* brand which featured models and a verified claim their images were not retouched in post-production (Abraham, 2011).

Not only does cosmetic advertising feature images of idealised women, but the accompanying text should also be considered. Cosmetic products are emotionally orientated, and therefore, many cosmetic advertisements have emotional appeals (Krause, 1974). Sobh (2011) identified the possibility of using message frames to activate self-regulatory goals in

cosmetics advertising, however, there has been little extant literature exploring the copy of cosmetic advertisements, particularly in a message framing capacity. Harrison (2008) evaluated the copy and images in mascara advertisements for men, successfully identifying clauses of mascara advertisements which describe the product as “actively achieving goals” such as ‘amplifies’ eyelashes (Harrison, 2008, p. 63). Kilyeni (2012, 2013) studied an extensive range of cosmetic advertisements and drew attention to three main themes, the transformative language used, the promise of instant beauty and the use of numbers to enhance credibility of cosmetic advertisements.

Some researchers have compared cosmetic advertising copy across different countries or cultures. Barnes and Yu (2004) reported a willingness of Chinese women to accept standardised cosmetics brand names, alluding to the acceptance of globalised cosmetics marketing. In contrast, a similar study found Japanese women need more information about cosmetic products benefits than America women (Barnes & Yamamoto, 2008). Tripathi (2013) found no significant differences in the amount of text between both India and the United States, but revealed differences in colours used in cosmetic advertising between these countries.

This literature review will explore the background literature surrounding goal orientations and apply this existing knowledge to motivations for women’s cosmetic use. Then, in order to supplement the extant literature on cosmetic advertising and make inferences about the outcome of the current research, this literature review will explore the appearance ideals and message framing literature.

2.2 GOAL ORIENTATION

Consumers are “goal driven” and “it is not unusual” for the same consumption goals to be motivated by different regulatory orientations (Lee & Higgins, 2009, p. 319). The goal orientation literature generally agrees human behaviour is organised around approaching positive end states and avoiding negative end states (Aaker & Lee, 2001; Atkinson, 1964; Carver, 2001; Higgins, 1987). However, Higgins (1997) distinguishes between regulatory focus (promotion and prevention behaviour) from regulatory reference (positive and negative end states). This distinction is often confused or not fully understood in the literature (for an exception see Hogg & Banister, 2001). Higgins (1997) conceptualisation is further explored in the latter message framing section of this chapter. For the purpose of this section,

regulatory focus is ignored – because this research is not concerned with the specific goal-related activities performed, but rather the reference points which motivate behaviour.

Multiple authors have studied the notion of self-regulation and different terminologies are employed by different authors describing versions of the self in parallel literature streams of self-regulation. James (1907, originally published in 1890) wrote about potential and actual selves, in material, social and spiritual settings. Despite James' earlier publication, Freud (1927) is often credited by contemporary authors for the conceptualisation of an individuals' complex and competing internal selves. These internal selves are part of an individual's self-concept (Solomon et al., 2009). Consumer psychologists have continued to develop and build upon these concepts and as depicted in Table 2-1, there are a variety of authors who envision multiple selves, using a selection of different terminologies.

<i>Author</i>	<i>Theory</i>	<i>Terminology</i>
James (1890)	constituents of the self contexts:	material, social, spiritual, ego potential and actual
Freud (1927)	structural model	id, ego and superego
Rogers (1954)	self-changes	real and ideal
Sirgy (1982, 1985)	self-image congruence	actual, ideal, social and social ideal
Markus & Kunda (1986)	malleable self	social selves
Markus & Nurius (1986)	possible selves	hoped-for and feared
Higgins (1987)	self-discrepancy	actual, ideal and ought
Ogilvie (1987)	-	undesired self
Higgins (1997)	regulatory referencing regulatory focus	(un)desired end state approach and avoidance

Table 2-1: Seminal Theories of Multiple Internal Selves

Despite being particularly relevant to cosmetic users who often cite 'hiding flaws' as a reason for cosmetic use (The Renfrew Center Foundation, 2012), feared or undesired selves have been largely neglected in the literature (Hogg & Banister, 2001; Ogilvie, Cohen, & Solomon, 2008). Little is understood regarding which of these representations of the self is most important or influential in difference circumstances (Carver, Lawrence, & Scheier, 1999). Neither Rogers (1954) description of real and ideal selves, nor Higgins (1987) self-discrepancy theory, incorporate the idea of feared or undesired selves, which are discussed by other authors (Carver et al., 1999; Markus & Nurius, 1986; Ogilvie, 1987). However, these positive and negative selves are "clearly not just two sides of the same coin" (Bosnjak & Rudolph, 2008, p. 702). Studies which do consider undesired or feared selves often find discrepancies between the feared and actual-self better predictors of life satisfaction (Ogilvie,

1987; Ogilvie & Clark, 1992; Phillips, Silvia, & Paradise, 2007). Similarly, Carver et al. (1999) found feared discrepancies were more robust predictors of agitation related effects than ought discrepancies. Furthermore, Knox et al. (1998) reported several categories of feared possible selves were negatively correlated with females' global self-esteem. Taken together, how close a person feels to their feared self is closely linked to their global self-esteem and predicts agitation and life dissatisfaction. Feared selves are more salient in young and middle aged adults in the realm of health (Hooker & Kaus, 1994), however, further research is required to understand the impact of undesired selves (Bosnjak & Rudolph, 2008; Ogilvie et al., 2008), particularly in the context of appearance goals (Sobh, 2011).

Seminal theories which include both a hoped for/desired self and a feared/undesired self are self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987) and the possible-self model (Markus & Nurius, 1986). Although there is substantial overlap between these theories, this is rarely commented on (Carver et al., 1999). Control theory (Carver & Scheier, 1981, 1982), which discusses the cyclic nature of self-regulation, is commonly used in conjunction with self-references to explain self-regulatory behaviours. This theory is also expanded on in the following section.

In order to remain consistent with goal orientation researchers in the context of personal appearance (Knobloch-Westerwick et al., 2013; Sobh, 2011), and because the wording is more straight forward, the current research adopts the stance of Markus and Nurius (1986) and lenses goal orientation through the approach or avoidance of possible selves, hoped-for and feared. Possible selves are more malleable and less stable (Hoyle & Sherrill, 2006) than actual selves, making them more easily activated and manipulated. The literature is still unclear on the impact of activating or increasing the saliency of a possible self and only a handful authors have examined this in differing contexts (e.g. Norman & Aron, 2003; Ruvalo & Markus, 1992; Sobh, 2011).

2.2.1 POSSIBLE SELVES

Possible selves represent individuals' ideas of what they might become, what they would like to become, and what they are afraid of becoming (Markus & Nurius, 1986). Considering regulatory referencing theory (Higgins, 1997) as an underpinning concept, possible selves can be viewed as reference points or incentives for future behaviour, and are commonly associated with either approaching a hoped-for self (positive) or avoiding a feared self (negative) (Markus & Nurius, 1986). These possible selves are developed based on one's knowledge and experiences, as well as future scenarios (Markus & Herzog, 1991) and can be

past, present or future orientated (Patrick et al., 2002). Markus and colleagues have extended their original conceptualisation to further emphasise the link between future-oriented self-representations and current behaviour (e.g. Cross & Markus, 1991; Markus & Herzog, 1991; Markus & Kunda, 1986; Ruvolo & Markus, 1992), describing possible selves as representations which “incite and direct one’s self-relevant actions” (Markus & Ruvolo, 1989, p. 217). Several researchers have concluded that possible selves play a role in motivation for both current (Hooker & Kaus, 1994) and future behaviour (Patrick et al., 2002).

The concept of possible selves has been drawn together with control theory (Carver & Scheier, 1981, 1982) by several authors, particularly in a physical setting such as health, fitness or appearance (Hooker & Kaus, 1994; Sobh, 2011; Sobh & Martin, 2008; Sobh & Martin, 2011). The premise of control theory is self-regulation, and the basic concept depicts a feedback loop, see Figure 2-1, in which behaviours and perceptions are determined by the environment and in reference to a ‘comparator’ (Carver & Scheier, 1982). Taken together, possible selves and control theory suggest that feedback from the environment, in reference the possible self, will determine a person’s actions. This concept is consistent with the positive and negative appearance self-management (Cash, 2002), discussed in the latter appearance ideals section.

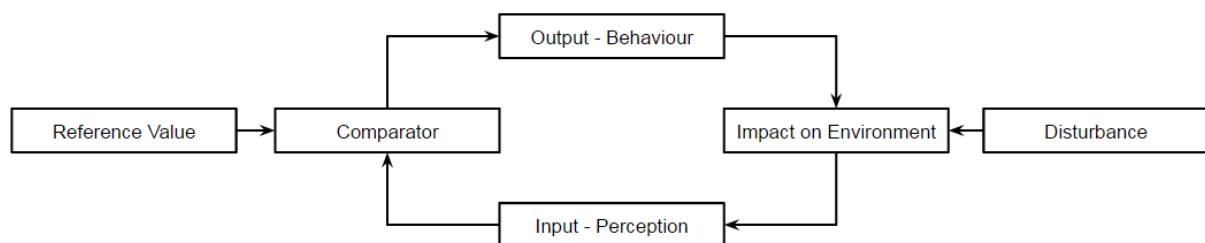


Figure 2-1: Negative Feedback Loop - adapted from Carver and Scheier (1982)

All possible selves have the potential to influence behaviour, but a particular possible self might be rarely activated and therefore have little impact on a person’s self-representation and behaviour (Hoyle & Sherrill, 2006). However, several researchers have demonstrated that an individual’s possible selves can be activated by priming tasks (Wheeler, DeMarree, & Petty, 2007; Wheeler, Morrison, DeMarree, & Petty, 2008), and that different salient goal orientations can influence behaviour and intentions (Lockwood, Jordan, & Kunda, 2002; Ruvolo & Markus, 1992; Sobh, 2011; Sobh & Martin, 2008).

Many authors have adopted the possible selves philosophy and this idea has been applied to health behaviours (Hooker & Kaus, 1992, 1994), career achievements (Ruvolo & Markus, 1992), academic motivation (Lockwood et al., 2002) and gym attendance (Sobh & Martin, 2011). Of particular relevance to the current research, few studies have investigated possible selves in relation to beauty, physical appearance or attractiveness (Knobloch-Westerwick et al., 2013; Knox et al., 1998; Sobh, 2011) and these appearance-related possible selves are addressed in the following section.

2.2.2 POSSIBLE SELVES AND APPEARANCE GOALS

A person can have different appearance goals between different times and contexts (Cash, 2002; Yu, Kozar, & Damhorst, 2013). There is limited research which lenses appearance related goals though Markus and Nurius's (1986) possible selves concept. A study by Knox et al. (1998) investigated adolescents' self-esteem in relation to their possible selves, reporting perceived ability to avoid a feared possible physical appearance was correlated with self-esteem in adolescent girls (but not boys). Hoped-for appearance was not related to self-esteem in this study (Knox et al., 1998). The results suggest female self-esteem is related to the ability to avoid self-perception of being 'unattractive' as opposed to their ability to achieve their ideal physical attractiveness.

Another study which drew from possible selves concepts, Knobloch-Westerwick et al. (2013) examined the effects of viewing image of 'beauty', 'caretaker' or 'professional' women in magazines. In a post-test follow up three days later, the women in the 'beauty' condition expressed significantly more appearance related concerns compared to participants in other conditions (Knobloch-Westerwick et al., 2013). However, the study also found women in the beauty ideal condition had more positive views of their possible future selves than the 'professional' condition (Knobloch-Westerwick et al., 2013). This finding contrasts with the general consensus that exposure to appearance ideals has negative consequences (Grabe et al., 2008; Groesz et al., 2002), a notion which is explored in the following section. However, it could be argued that the alternative conditions in the Knobloch-Westerwick et al. (2013) study were also idealisations of females, in professional and family contexts, therefore, different results are expected when beauty idealisations are compared to non-idealised images in an appearance context.

A study investigating differing age identities, using a possible selves foundation, reported multiple age identities (actual, ideal, and feel age) affect social comparison behaviour, body

satisfaction and appearance self-discrepancy (Yu et al., 2013). In the context of anti-aging products and procedures, Sobh (2011) demonstrated possible selves could be activated by priming, and that saliency of possible selves (hoped-for or feared) was associated with intended use of different anti-aging methods. Specifically, Sobh (2011) reported women consider invasive aging treatments (such as collagen, Botox or surgery) more to avoid feared selves while curative procedures (anti-aging crème, mini facials and beauty salon treatments) are associated with approaching hoped-for selves. Consumption of products in response to possible selves is further explored in the following section.

2.2.3 POSSIBLE SELVES AND CONSUMPTION

Products and services can be tools for reaching goals and to minimise the gap between the real and the ideal self (Solomon et al., 2009), thus marketers try to motivate consumption of their products and services as a mean of goal attainment (Bagozzi & Dholakia, 1999). Many purchases are motivated by a consumer attempting to attain a hoped-for self and/or avoid a feared self (Morgan, 1993; Patrick et al., 2002; Sobh & Martin, 2011). Although marketing theory purports stakeholder satisfaction is the central goal, the marketing practice of creating customer dissatisfaction in order to sell products contradicts this notion (Richins, 1991).

It is important for consumer behaviour researchers to understand possible selves (Morgan, 1993) as they are thought to be influential in effecting change because they present an abstract idea in a self-relevant, concrete form (Comello, 2009). Research suggests consumers are able to identify products, services and activities which will assist in the approach or avoidance of possible selves and if a product is relevant to a consumers' self-concept it is more likely to be consumed (Patrick et al., 2002; Sobh, 2011). Hoyle and Sherrill (2006) purported the strongest responses come from activating a possible self which requires a behaviour an individual feels confident they can perform and sustain, such as the incorporation of daily a moisturising crème in one's daily hygiene routine. This idea is consistent with Richins (1995) assertion that the most persuasive advertising images are those which present attainable circumstances.

There are two main theories which draw connections between self-regulatory references and consumption (Solomon et al., 2009), namely (symbolic) self-completion theory (Gollwitzer, Wicklund, & Hilton, 1982; Wicklund & Gollwitzer, 1981) and the self-image congruence model (Sirgy & Danes, 1982). Self-completion is the process through which an individual self-evaluates and purchases products to compensate for a perceived shortcoming

in reference to an ideal (Wicklund & Gollwitzer, 2013), such as a women who buys red lipstick when she evaluates herself as less sexy than she thinks she should be. Self-image congruence captures the concept that individuals purchase products/brands they perceive to match the image they hold of themselves (Sirgy, 1985), in this case a women who perceives herself as sexy may purchase the same red lipstick because she believes the product represents sexy as well.

The concept of the malleable self (Markus & Kunda, 1986) is also of particular relevance when considering goals and consumption. This goal orientation theory suggests that though fixed traits often drive behaviour, an individual's self-conceptions are also fluid, particularly in differing situations (Markus & Kunda, 1986). The importance of differing situations is touched upon in James's (1890, 1907) original paper, and is also discussed by Sirgy (1982, 1985). Both Markus and Kunda (1986) and Aaker (1999) consider situational cues to be influential in determining a salient self and the specific characteristics of the (un)desired self. For example, an individual may be a low user of cosmetics, viewing the products as incongruent with their everyday self, but an upcoming wedding may influence their salient self, prompting a change in attitude towards cosmetic products or brands. Aaker (1999) investigated differing brands in several situations and found evidence of the social situational self-congruency. This finding also lends support to the goal compatibility hypothesis, which is discussed in the latter message framing section.

Self-concept can be useful when explaining the effectiveness of promotional strategies (Zinkhan & Hong, 1991) and more research should be focussed on understanding possible selves as a mediator of communication effects (Comello, 2009). The importance of understanding negative self-references and their impact on consumption, specifically of fashion goods, is emphasised by Banister and Hogg (2004), who reported the predominant motivation of clothing consumption was in reference to avoidance of negative images, rather than attempts to achieve a positive image, consistent with findings of an earlier study (Hogg & Banister, 2001). However, in a low involvement context, undesired congruity was found to impact consumption-related attitudes, but did not significantly impact on purchase decisions (Bosnjak & Rudolph, 2008).

2.3 APPEARANCE IDEALS

Appearance ideals are conveyed and reinforced by many societal influences, including family, peers, schools, health care professionals and perhaps most notably; the media (Cash, 2002; Levine & Murnen, 2009; Levine & Smolak, 1996; Thompson & Stice, 2001). Different cultures hold different appearance ideals (Botta, 2000; Schooler, Ward, Merriwether, & Caruthers, 2004), however, Western ideals are becoming pervasive in different cultures (Bakhshi, 2011; Becker, Burwell, Gilman, Herzog, & Hamburg, 2002; Solomon et al., 2009).

Researchers in the field of appearance ideals are faced with inconsistent and often interchangeable terminology. In order to discuss these concepts, the terms used need to be defined. Empirical research interchangeably operationalises phrases such as, ‘body ideal’, ‘beauty ideal’ and sometimes ‘thin ideal’. Sometimes ‘body ideal’ has been understood as a type of ‘beauty ideal’ (Ashikali, Dittmar, & Ayers, 2014), however, the current research contends this conceptualisation and alternatively proposes ‘beauty ideal’ and ‘body ideal’ as types of appearance ideals. Typically, ‘body ideal’ represents the schema of a very thin-waist, but often includes traits such as well-developed breasts, long legs and flawless skin (Thompson, Heinberg, Altabe, & Tantleff-Dunn, 1999), primarily a body focused term. Consequently, for the purpose of this research the phrase ‘beauty ideal’ refers to the schema of facial characteristics such as flawless skin, large eyes, contoured cheek bones and symmetrical features, which has been alluded to by cosmetic researchers (Cash et al., 1989; Cash et al., 1985; Etcoff, Stock, Haley, Vickery, & House, 2011; Guthrie et al., 2008; Nash et al., 2006). Despite this, much of the latent research focusses on appearance ideals, images which portray both a body and beauty ideal.

The body is the basis for distinction between the sexes (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997) and although there has been a growing interest in, and concern for, male appearance dissatisfaction (Bearman, Martinez, Stice, & Presnell, 2006; Carlson Jones, 2004; Grogan, 2008; McNeill & Firman, 2014), the vast majority of appearance ideal related literature focuses on women (Thompson et al., 1999). It has been established males are differently affected by body dissatisfaction than females (Cusumano & Thompson, 1999; Hargreaves & Tiggemann, 2002). Furthermore, females are the predominant users of cosmetic products (Apaolaza-Ibáñez et al., 2011). For these reasons, this review focuses on female appearance ideals, how females are affected by exposure to ideals as well as the effectiveness of female ideals in advertising.

2.3.1 FEMALE APPEARANCE IDEALS

Many explanations have been discussed as contributing factors for gender differences and appearance ideals. Women go through immense physical changes during adolescence (Bell & Dittmar, 2011), whilst childbearing (Chrisler & Ghiz, 1993) and again in older adulthood (Roy & Payette, 2012), all of which are significant body image triggers (Chrisler & Ghiz, 1993). Furthermore, a women's appearance has traditionally been an important basis for evaluation (Thompson et al., 1999) as culture considers the female body a symbol for personal success or failure (Dakanalis & Riva, 2013).

The Western appearance ideal consists of big round eyes, tiny waists, large breasts, blond hair and blue eyes (Solomon et al., 2009) which is conveyed and reinforced by many societal influences (Levine & Murnen, 2009; Thompson & Stice, 2001), however the most vociferous purveyor of appearance ideals is the mass media (Groesz et al., 2002), which is saturated with pervasive, indoctrinating messages (Levine & Murnen, 2009). Women are more objectified than men in the media (Diedrichs, Lee, & Kelly, 2011) and there is widespread use of excessive make-up, lighting techniques, airbrushing and digital manipulation, resulting in images which differ from what is possible in real life (Hunter, 2011; Thompson et al., 1999; Thompson & Stice, 2001). Additionally concerning, "is the fact consumers are often unable to distinguish a real image from a manipulated image" (Hunter, 2011, p. 111). Furthermore, it is common for media images to visually dismember women, eliminating their heads and focusing on their bodies (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997). These techniques create a large discrepancy between the average woman and how the media portrays women (Dakanalis & Riva, 2013; Groesz et al., 2002; Thompson et al., 1999), and the images in the media represent largely unattainable ideals (Grabe et al., 2008; Want, 2009). Because of this, several authors have called for the regulation of digitally altered images (Hunter, 2011; Rea, 2012).

Authors generally agree there is significant pressure on women to appear consistent with these largely unattainable ideals (Dittmar & Howard, 2004; Engeln-Maddox, 2005; Richins, 1991), which results in a large discrepancy between a women's body image and their appearance ideal. This discrepancy is often referred to as body dissatisfaction (Cash & Henry, 1995). Studies show approximately 50 percent of girls and young women report dissatisfaction with their bodies (Bearman et al., 2006; McCabe, 1997). Body dissatisfaction has been linked to a variety of behaviours such as cosmetic surgery, diets, fasting, laxative abuse and other eating disorder symptomologies (Grogan, 2008). Further adding to the

discrepancy between media and reality, attractive people are often associated with success, health, happiness and self-esteem (Dakanalis & Riva, 2013; Stice, 1994; Thompson et al., 1999), which has been referred to as the ‘what is beautiful is good’ stereotype (Dion et al., 1972), although there are some suggestions this phenomenon is not as strong or as straightforward as previously thought (Eagly, Ashmore, Makhijani, & Longo, 1991).

2.3.2 EFFECTS OF EXPOSURE TO APPEARANCE IDEALS ON SELF-CONCEPT

Media’s portrayal of women and female beauty tends to reflect social attitudes, values and beliefs (Thompson et al., 1999), which in turn can affect society’s perception of ideal beauty (Botta, 1999, 2000). People’s perception of ideal beauty can influence their behaviours, though a process called appearance self-management (Cash, 2002). Appearance self-management can be positively (highlighting positive features) or negatively (concealment or correction of offending characteristics) motivated and the use of clothing, cosmetics, hairstyling and jewellery as tools for appearance-self management is ubiquitous across cultures (Cash, 2002).

Exposure to ideals, and thus perceived discrepancy between ideal and actual appearance, has been repetitively linked to serious negative consequences for some individuals (Cahill & Mussap, 2007; Clarke & Korotchenko, 2011; Durkin & Paxton, 2002; Egbert & Belcher, 2012; Ferraro et al., 2008; Harper & Tiggemann, 2008; Heinberg et al., 1995; Posavac et al., 1998; Richins, 1991) and media ideals have been implicated in increased desire for weight loss (Becker et al., 2002; López-Guimerà et al., 2010). It should also be noted that many of the studies conducted in this field focus on either magazines or television (Groesz et al., 2002), whereas the popularity of these media types are declining in favour of online media (Bell & Dittmar, 2011).

Several meta-analyses have found a small significant relationship between exposing females to thin ideals and increased negative feelings about their bodies, in comparison to control images or average sized models (Grabe et al., 2008; Groesz et al., 2002; Holmstrom, 2004; Want, 2009). Furthermore, a review by López-Guimerà et al. (2010) concluded that in light of accumulated evidence, repeated exposure to media ideals affects body image. Further emphasising the link between media exposure and body image is the study conducted in media-naïve Fiji, which found, after exposure to media ideals, Fijian girls expressed desire for weight loss, which contrasts with the traditional Fijian cultural ideal (Becker et al., 2002).

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In contrast to these results, some studies have found no relationship (Champion & Furnham, 1999; Cusumano & Thompson, 1997; Halliwell, Dittmar, & Howe, 2005; Martin & Kennedy, 1993) or a positive relationship between media exposure and body image (Myers & Biocca, 1992). Cusumano and Thompson (1997) failed to find a significant relationship between exposure to media and body image. Similarly, Champion and Furnham (1999) found when they separated participants who were ‘satisfied’ and ‘dissatisfied’ prior to exposure, and considered the directionality of dissatisfaction, there was no significant main effects for the image they were exposed to. Halliwell et al. (2005) reported no effect for viewing thin models but did find that viewing average-sized models lowered body-focused anxiety. Bell and Dittmar (2011) found no overall effects of exposure to ideals on appearance dissatisfaction; but of the sample, those who strongly identified with the models suffered from higher body and appearance dissatisfaction than those who did not strongly identify with the images. This finding is consistent with social comparison theory discussed in the following section. In her meta-analysis of media’s impact on body image, Holmstrom (2004) noted in this field what authors used as comparison stimuli in non-idealised conditions was inconsistent, often either irrelevant images of houses or gardens, or overweight (less ‘attractive’) models, meaning it is difficult to compare and contrast findings.

When studying appearance ideals, many researchers suggest susceptibility is an explanation for the differences in outcomes for different individuals. Essentially the effects of exposure to an ideal is mediated or moderated by aspects of an individual’s self-concept prior to exposure, such as body image, body dissatisfaction, internalisation and self-esteem (Cahill & Mussap, 2007; Durkin & Paxton, 2002; Hargreaves & Tiggemann, 2002; Levine & Murnen, 2009; Polivy & Herman, 2004; Thompson & Stice, 2001). Self-concept is the beliefs a person holds about their own attributes and how they evaluate the self on these qualities, components of which include a person’s evaluation of their physical appearance (often referred to as body image), as well as their self-esteem and other associated variables such as self-consciousness, possible selves, extended selves, gender identity and sexual identity (Solomon et al., 2009). Wan, Ansons, Chattopadhyay, and Leboe (2013) explored an alternative explanation for the variety of results in this field, demonstrating the moderating role of mode of exposure, essentially, whether the manipulations were blatantly presented and focus drawn to the models or a more subtle exposure method. Across several studies, the conditions in which the participants were asked to comment on model attractiveness appeared elicit a defensive coping response and a more positive self-evaluation after exposure, while

participants who were asked to comment on the sunglasses worn in the same set of images lowered self-evaluations (Wan et al., 2013), consistent with the findings of an earlier meta-analysis (Want, 2009). Another explanation of the discrepancy between individual effects of viewing appearance ideals is captured by social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954), and this is addressed in the following section.

2.3.3 SOCIAL COMPARISON THEORY

When discussing individual differences in effects of exposure to appearance ideals one of the most commonly cited explanations is Festinger's (1954) social comparison theory (Diedrichs & Lee, 2011) and many researchers have employed this theory when explaining their findings (e.g. Botta, 1999; Botta, 2000; Dittmar & Howard, 2004; Nichols & Schumann, 2012; Ridolfi, Myers, Crowther, & Ciesla, 2011; Want, 2009). Originally, social comparison theory suggested people viewed as similar to oneself would be selected as targets for comparison (Festinger, 1954), however, it has been suggested beautiful women in the media are rational choices to obtain accurate evaluations of one's appearance when assessing one's appearance in reference to an appearance ideal (Engeln-Maddox, 2005). There is evidence that exposure to ideals raises comparison standards, thereby increasing the scope for a discrepancy between the self and the comparator (Richins, 1991, 1995).

Research indicates that tendency for social comparison may be an important mechanism for adverse effects of the media on women's body image (Clay, Vignoles, & Dittmar, 2005) and several studies have supported the relevance of this theory in appearance ideal exposure (Dittmar & Howard, 2004; Engeln-Maddox, 2005; Martin & Kennedy, 1993; Ridolfi et al., 2011; Strowman, 1996; Tiggemann & Slater, 2004). Some researchers have experimented with either encouraging or discouraging participants to engage in social comparisons during exposure to media ideals (Hargreaves & Tiggemann, 2002; Posavac, Posavac, & Weigel, 2001; Tiggemann & Slater, 2004), however results have not been definitive and this area would benefit from a meta-analysis to guide further study (Want, 2009).

The impact of social comparisons when exposed to media ideals is not the same for all individuals (Want, 2009) and some researchers have found internalisation interacts with social comparison (Dittmar & Howard, 2004) and proposed internalisation of ideals operates as a frame of reference for social comparison, contributing to both defining standards of beauty and selection of comparison targets (Clay et al., 2005).

2.3.4 EFFECTIVENESS OF IDEALS IN ADVERTISING

Researchers have argued that one of the strategies used in marketing these attractiveness relevant products is lowering a consumers self-concept and to deliver relief through purchase (Apaolaza-Ibáñez et al., 2011), and there is evidence consumers themselves are aware of this strategy, saying advertising was “all about the fantasy” (Diedrichs et al., 2011, p. 264). Despite experiencing lower satisfaction with the self, Richins (1991) found consumers thought idealised advertisements were appealing and liked the products featured. The use of attractive individuals in advertising is certainly popular (Bower, 2001), and multiple researchers have investigated the effects of using communicators and models on advertisement recall, opinion change and brand perception (Bower, 2001; Caballero & Solomon, 1984; Goodman, Morris, & Sutherland, 2008; Joseph, 1982; Trampe, Stapel, Siero, & Mulder, 2010), as well as those that suggest a relationship between advertising affecting self-concept and purchase behaviour or intentions (Antioco et al., 2012; Boyce, Martens, Schimel, & Kuijer, 2012; Charmley, Garry, & Ballantine, 2012). Furthermore, the celebrity endorsement literature demonstrates the importance of attractiveness (Amos, Holmes, & Strutton, 2008; Kahle & Homer, 1985), however use of celebrities has its own nuances and therefore is considered beyond the scope of the current research. Overall, from a marketers perspective, it seems appropriate to select models and endorsers based on their appearance, (Antioco et al., 2012).

However, using highly idealised models in advertising might not be as effective as it has been thought to be as studies exploring ideals in advertising have produced somewhat conflicting conclusions. For example, Bower (2001) revealed when consumers are sufficiently negatively affected by comparing themselves to a model they give more negative evaluations of both the model and the advertising message. Several authors have found larger but attractive models to be just as effective as thin models (Diedrichs & Lee, 2011; Halliwell & Dittmar, 2004; Halliwell et al., 2005). In addition, Goodman et al. (2008) reported models which had more classically beautiful, cute or girl-next-door traits produced significantly greater pleasure and arousal (interest) from female consumers than sexual or sensual models when no brand names were visible.

To further complicate matters, research suggests the product category makes a difference in the effectiveness of idealised models in advertising (Caballero & Solomon, 1984). One study revealed that although highly attractive models were less effective in problem-solving-

type product categories, they were more influential than ‘normal looking’ models when advertising products that were attractiveness relevant, such as cosmetics (Bower & Landreth, 2001). Along similar lines, Nichols and Schumann (2012) report aspirational models are preferred in symbolic product categories (accessories, clothing, sporting), whereas assimilative models are preferred for functional products (electronics, food, household). In addition, there is some evidence that the context in which a female appears establishes an expectation, which influences her perceived attractiveness, as such that a larger model appearing in a non-traditional magazine will be rated more attractive than if she had appeared in a traditional magazine (Bian & Foxall, 2013). Taken together, these findings are consistent with other authors who have investigated the beauty match-up hypothesis, finding consumers prefer models which ‘match’ the product they are advertising (Kahle & Homer, 1985; Kamins, 1990; Solomon, Ashmore, & Longo, 1992; Trampe et al., 2010) and the context in which the advertisement is placed (Bian & Foxall, 2013). However, there are different types of attractiveness relevant products (Bloch & Richins, 1992) and they may not all be appropriate for highly attractive models (Bower & Landreth, 2001). Caballero and Solomon (1984) suggested cosmetics would likely be an industry in which highly attractive models work well.

2.4 ADVERTISEMENT MESSAGE FRAMING

Advertising messages can be framed different ways and although these messages can encourage the same behaviour (buying and using a product/service), their persuasive impact on consumers’ attitudes, intentions, and actions can be different (Rothman & Salovey, 1997). Using appropriate message frames could increase the persuasiveness of messages to consumers, thereby increasing sales (Martin & Marshall, 1999). Message frames which reflect the viewer’s own goals have found to be more effective (Kim, 2006). Therefore, understanding framing effects (and their interaction with goals), may aid the development of creative and effective advertising copy and layout (Arora, 2000).

It should also be noted this review only covers single sided message frames, although there is some evidence double sided messages are more effective ((Pechmann, 1992), they are beyond the scope of the current research.

Levin, Schneider, and Gaeth (1998) identified and developed the three typologies of message frames; risky choice framing (more commonly referred to as prospect theory),

attribute framing and goal framing. Risky choice or prospect theory type message frames have received the most attention in the literature (Cesario et al., 2013), so some of the results from these studies are discussed in order to further inform the current study. However, because the current research explores the interaction between goals and advertising in a cosmetic consumption context, goal framing message types are of more relevance. Two types of goal framing, both derivatives of Higgins (1997) goal orientation conceptualisations, are discussed. Results of a selection of message framing studies are presented in Table 2-2.

2.4.1 PROSPECT THEORY

One of the most regularly cited concepts in the message framing literature is prospect theory (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979). Prospect theory is the process for decision-making in risk related situations, where decisions are made based on an evaluation of possible risks and gains. In a message framing context, the theory is often simplified (for more detail refer to Kahneman & Tversky, 1979) and these potential gains and potential losses are represented by messages which are either framed positively to highlight the desired outcomes or negatively, by focussing on the benefits foregone or the adverse consequences of not using the product or performing a behaviour (Arora, 2007; Pavey & Churchill, 2014). This theory suggests loss-framed messages are most effective for detection situations such as breast self-examination (Meyerowitz & Chaiken, 1987), whereas gain framed messages are best when encouraging prevention behaviour, such as using sunscreen (Rothman & Salovey, 1997). Although many papers citing prospect theory do not discuss or identify a reference point for the gain or loss frame, Salovey and Williams-Piehota (2004) acknowledged that the gains and losses were made as compared to a reference point, akin to the references discussed in the following goal message frames section.

2.4.2 GOAL MESSAGE FRAMES

Goal type message frames are the “consequence or implied goal of a behaviour” (Levin et al., 1998, p. 151). However, the current research interprets two different typographies of goal message frames, reflective of Higgins (1997) regulatory focus and regulatory references. This section looks at each of these theories and finally explains the match-up, or regulatory fit hypothesis.

Higgins (1997) distinguishes between promotion (prevention) motivation and desired (undesired) references, which are often treated as one in the literature, making distinguishing

one set of results from another difficult. Typically, authors cite and refer to regulatory focus, however they tend to pair prevention messages with undesired references and promotion messages with desired references.

2.4.2.1 Regulatory Focus Message Frames

Regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1997) describes promotion messages and prevention messages. Often, prevention versus promotion framed messages are utilised in social marketing campaigns, such as encouraging environmental responsibility and promoting anti-smoking (Kareklas et al., 2012; Kim, 2006). Promotion framed messages highlight the pursuit of positive outcomes and gain or non-gain situations, while prevention framed messages focus on the avoidance of negative outcomes and loss or non-loss situations (Higgins, 1997; Kareklas et al., 2012). It has been posited that individuals with a promotion focus will seek hedonic, enjoyment and attractive type products, while individuals with a prevention focus will seek utilitarian, safety and reliability attributes (Aaker & Lee, 2001; Chernev, 2004).

Typically, promotion focussed messages are paired with a desired reference point (Aaker & Lee, 2001); essentially highlighting a products ability to deliver a positive outcome, such as glowing skin or luscious lips. Whereas prevention framed messages are often associated with undesired references and avoiding losses, such that a prevention message would focus on the products' reliability and ability to prevent a negative outcome (Johnson-Young & Magee, 2014), making claims such as 'anti-clump mascara'. See Table 2-3 for examples of combinations of message framing components.

2.4.2.2 Regulatory Referenced Message Frames

Message framing can also be lensed through regulatory referencing theory, using a desired end state or an undesired end state as a reference point for self-regulation (Higgins, 1997). Early psychology theorist, James, alluded to the importance of regulatory references in advertising when he declared "neither threats nor pleadings can move a man unless they touch someone of his potential or actual selves" (James, 1907, p. 297). Sobh, Lee, and Vaughan (2006) suggested self-regulation orientation could be activated temporarily through advertisement message frames. The concept of different products having different regulatory referencing goals attached to them is tested by Sobh (2011), who demonstrated regulatory referencing primes influenced the selection of different anti-aging products or treatments. It is a logical extension of this finding that the appropriateness of a product for a particular self-

reference can also be manipulated by message frames in the same sense which is demonstrated in regulatory focus framed goal compatibly.

Despite the existence of ‘real world’ examples in the cosmetics industry, message frames have not been studied empirically under regulatory referencing theory. Instead, research often (but not necessarily always) pairs promotion messages with desired references and prevention messages with undesired references (Higgins, 1997). This is often seen in cosmetics advertising, for example a beauty product may be promoted by claiming it can ‘illuminate skin and make it appear glowing’ while another product discusses its ability to ‘reduce the appearance of lines and blemishes’ (see Rea, 2012). One highlights moving towards a desired end state while the other focusses on the products ability to move a consumer away from an undesired state. However, some researchers have made poor distinctions between regulatory focus and regulatory references which prevents results from being attributable to either regulatory focus or regulatory referencing (Johnson-Young & Magee, 2014; Kim & Sung, 2013; Kim, 2006).

Although regulatory referencing is not cited, a small collection of literature investigates shame or fear message appeals which utilise undesired self-images (Brennan & Binney, 2010; Morales, Wu, & Fitzsimons, 2012). Findings suggest that negative appeals could invoke self-protection and inaction rather than the desired response, particularly shaming type messages (Brennan & Binney, 2010). Shaming message are seen in the cosmetics industry, for example “white marks do not make cute accessories” – *Secret* (deodorant). Furthermore, one study reported that of 153 guilt ads studied, 8.5% were advertising cosmetic products (Huhmann & Brotherton, 1997).

This section has differentiated between message framing typologies. However, as the differences are subtle, sometimes overlapping and often confused in the literature, Table 2-3 presents more possible examples of message frames, illustrating the subtle differences between message framing typologies.

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<i>Paper</i>	<i>Topic</i>	<i>Phrases tested</i>	<i>Result</i>	<i>Theories (reference)</i>
<i>Arora (2007)</i>	Teeth whitening system	“Over 90 percent of users achieved the expected 2-5 shades of improvement in one week” “Less than 10 percent of users did not achieve the expected 2-5 shades of improvement in one week”	Positive framing more effective	prospect (desired)
<i>Buda & Zhang (2000)</i>	Stereo receiver (low personal relevance)	“test market results show that 85% of users were satisfied with its performance” “15% of customers were dissatisfied with the product	Positive framing results in greater product attributes ratings	prospect (desired versus undesired)
<i>Cesario, Corker & Jelinek (2013)</i>	Sun exposure	Pamphlet about sun exposure causing wrinkles Pamphlet about sun exposure causing skin cancer	Messages which describe pleasure of adhering (pains of not adhering) are more effective for promotion (prevention) focused individuals	prospect and regulatory focus (both undesired)
<i>Chang (2007)</i>	Variety of dental products	“With disclosing gum, you can be more confident that your teeth and gums are healthy. You will also enjoy fresh breath.” “Without disclosing gum, you may be less confident that your teeth and gums are healthy. You might also suffer from bad breath.”	Gain framed messages are more effective for new products. Interaction effect for known products	prospect (mixed – both desired and undesired)
<i>Cheng & Wu (2010)</i>	Electronic translator	Offers translation with “two-way full-text translation with up to 80% accuracy” Offers translation with “two-way full-text translation with only 20% error rate”	Positively framed messages resulted in more favourable responses. Involvement increases susceptibility. Warning of bias had protective effect.	prospect (desired versus undesired)
<i>Florack and Scarabis (2006)</i>	Sunscreen	“Give sunburn no chance. Brand X provides safe protection. Brand X—The double protection” Enjoy the warm rays of the sun. Brand X for healthy tan. Brand X—Enjoy the sun”	Participants were more likely to prefer products presented in an advertisement with a claim compatible with the experimentally induced regulatory focus.	regulatory focus (desired versus undesired)

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<i>Hevey et al. (2010)</i>	Sunscreen	“Regular application of sunscreen decreases risk of getting skin cancer [wrinkles]” “Failure to apply sunscreen regularly increases your risk of getting skin cancer [wrinkles]”	Gain [loss] framed messages had stronger effect on sunscreen use for those with high [low] body consciousness.	prospect (both undesired)
<i>Johnson-Young & Magee (2014)</i>	Body-image – Dove’s ‘real beauty’ campaign	Participants were shown videos produced by Dove. <i>Amy</i> and <i>Onslaught</i> operationalised a promotion-based appeal, and <i>Under Pressure</i> and <i>Evolution</i> operationalised a prevention-based appeal	Promotion frame more effective. Collective efficacy was a stronger predictor in the prevention condition	regulatory focus (evidence of both desired and undesired)
<i>Kareklas, Carlson & Muehling (2012)</i>	Environmental	“Maintaining the beauty of [state's] natural landscape” “Preventing the decline of [state's] natural landscape” “Enhancing the state's scenic views” “Reducing the deterioration of the state's scenic views.”	Interaction effect, promotion [prevention] messages generated more [equally or more] favourable attitudes for independent [interdependent]	regulatory focus (both desired)
<i>Kim & Sung (2013)</i>	Clothing brands	“Look sharp wherever you’re headed” “Prevent being clumsy in fashion”	Promotion [prevention] messages elicit more favourable responses to a sophisticated [sincere] brand	regulatory focus (desired versus undesired)
<i>Kim (2006)</i>	Anti-smoking	“If you do not smoke, you can obtain positive results such as improving your respiratory system, enhancing brain power, having fresh breath and whiter teeth...” “If you do not smoke you can avoid negative outcomes such as lung cancer, brain damage, bad breath and yellow teeth...”	Promotion [prevention] messages are more effective when participants were primed with a promotion [prevention] goal orientation	regulatory focus (desired versus undesired)
<i>Kulkarni & Yuan (2014)</i>	Deodorant	“Say NO to Unpleasant Odors” “Say YES to Pleasant Freshness”	Positively [negatively] framed messages are more persuasive when primed for psychological remoteness [proximity]	regulatory reference
<i>Meyerowitz & Chaiken (1987)</i>	Breast self-examination	By [not] doing BSE now, you can [will not] learn what your normal, healthy breasts feel like so that you will be better [ill] prepared to notice any small, abnormal changes ...	Loss framed pamphlets produced more BSE intentions than gain framed.	prospect theory (mixed)
<i>Thomas et al. (2011)</i>	Skin Cancer	The loss-framed messages emphasised the risks of not protecting oneself from the sun and the gain-framed messages emphasised the benefits of protecting oneself from the sun. (specific examples not provided)	Loss-framed messages produced the higher intentions. Appearance consequences produced higher perceived threat than health.	prospect theory. (unsure)

Table 2-2: Summary of Message Framing Studies

Regulatory Focus		Regulatory Reference	
		<i>Desired (health)</i>	<i>Undesired (aging)</i>
Promotion Focus	<i>Gain framed</i>	Regular application of moisturiser can maintain healthy looking skin	Regular application of moisturiser can slow the signs of aging
	<i>Non-gain framed</i>	Failure to regularly apply moisturiser won't help healthy looking skin	Failure to regularly apply moisturiser won't slow the signs of aging
Prevention Focus	<i>Non-loss framed</i>	Reducing sun exposure can protect healthy looking skin	Reducing sun exposure can slow the signs of aging
	<i>Loss framed</i>	Excessive sun exposure can damage healthy looking skin	Excessive sun exposure increases the signs of aging

Table 2-3: Illustration of Different Message Frame Theories

Developed based on Table 2 in Higgins 1997

2.4.3 INDIVIDUAL DETERMINANTS OF MESSAGE FRAMING EFFECTIVENESS

Understanding individual differences and dispositions which influence the effectiveness of message frames is an important area of investigation in this field (Cesario et al., 2013; Latimer et al., 2007). For example, Hevey et al. (2010) found interaction between body-consciousness and the effectiveness of (prospect theory) gain and loss framed messages. Cheng and Wu (2010) found evidence that media literacy had an impact on advertisement effectiveness, reporting that when participants were warned of the advertisements persuasive contents, it eliminated the framing effect. The mind-set of viewers, whether concrete or abstract also appears to influence effectiveness of appeals, with loss messages working better for concrete 'how' outcomes while gain messages were paired successfully with abstract 'why' outcomes (White, MacDonnell, & Dahl, 2011). Other authors have reported message framing interaction effects for a variety of factors including perceived product newness (Chang, 2007), involvement with the product category (Cheng & Wu, 2010), collective efficacy (Johnson-Young & Magee, 2014), self-view (independent versus interdependent, Kareklas et al., 2012), and autonomy (Pavey & Churchill, 2014).

2.4.4 GOAL COMPATIBILITY

Zinkhan and Hong (1991) developed a model hypothesising that advertising appeals congruent with viewers self-concept would be more effective than incongruent appeals. This concept has been studied by several researchers and is also referred to as goal compatibility (Kareklas et al., 2012; Kim, 2006). Goal compatibility is the extent to which the goals of one party are similar to and coincide with the goals of another party (Werder, 2005), however in the context of message framing, the other party is the message advertisers select. Therefore, when an individual's regulatory goals match the message frames the more positive persuasive effects result (Aaker & Lee, 2001).

Several studies have confirmed Zinkhan and Hong's (1991) model and found messages were more persuasive when they were congruent (as opposed to incongruent) with the goals of the participants (Aaker & Lee, 2001; Florack & Scarabis, 2006; Kareklas et al., 2012; Kim, 2006; Nan, 2008). Furthermore, there is evidence priming can be utilised to achieve goal compatibility (Aaker & Lee, 2001; Florack & Scarabis, 2006; Kareklas et al., 2012).

2.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter provided the theoretical background for each of the main areas of interest in this research. Specifically, it addressed the cosmetics literature, which served to introduce the research and the relevance of the remaining literature. This was followed by a section exploring self-regulatory references, a subset of the goal orientation literature. The conclusion of this section was that little was understood of the role of possible selves (Markus & Nurius, 1986), particularly in the realm of appearance goals. Then, this review examined the appearance ideals literature, which discussed the studies pertaining to the potential negative outcomes viewing appearance ideals has, particularly on women and girls. This section concluded although there was a multitude of studies examining ideals, the results of these studies are still relatively mixed and more research is required to fully understand this process. Finally, the message framing literature was addressed. It was demonstrated that although authors report mixed results, and often only cite one theory (prospect theory Kahneman & Tversky, 1979) a variety of possible combinations of message frames are possible. The current research is, however concerned with regulatory referenced message frames and the accompanying goal compatibility theory. After examining the literature providing a foundation for this research, it was possible to develop a conceptual model, which is introduced in the following chapter.

3 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

This chapter discusses the conceptual model and research hypotheses which are investigated in this study. Firstly, the proposed conceptual model is presented. Next, eight hypotheses are posed. Finally, this chapter discusses the covariate variables which were considered in this research.

3.1 PROPOSED CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The conceptual model (see Figure 3-1) was formulated by drawing together the goal orientation, appearance ideals and message framing literature discussed in Chapter Two. The model presents the relationships between participants' perceptions of the experimental stimuli and the dependant variables in this study.

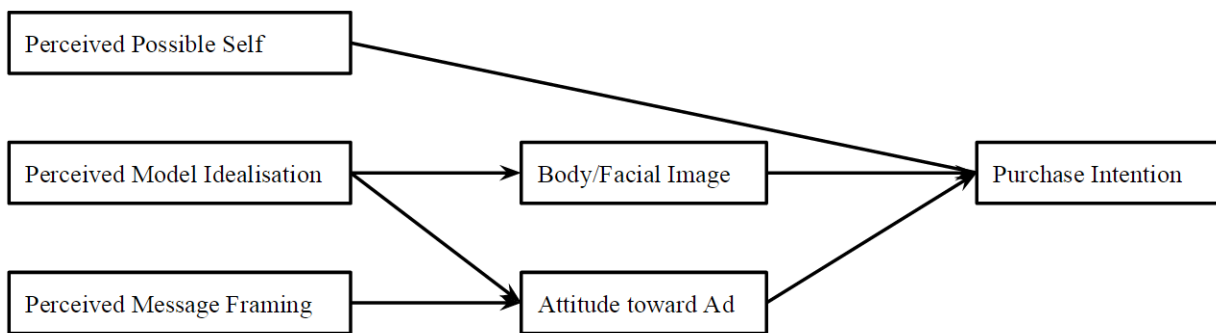


Figure 3-1: Proposed Conceptual Model

3.2 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

3.2.1 HYPOTHESIS ONE

Although Banister and Hogg (2004, 2001) found consumers selected clothing based on motivation to avoid a feared self-image. In contrast, Sobh (2011) demonstrated that saliency of hoped-for self was associated with cosmetic products such as anti-aging crème and mini-facials, as opposed to feared-self saliency which was linked to consideration of medical procedures such as Botox and collagen fillers. Assuming mascara use would have a similar relationship with possible selves (like products such as anti-aging crème and mini-facials), Hypothesis One states:

H₁: Participants who have a salient Hoped-for Self goal orientation will have greater Purchase Intention than those with a salient Feared Self goal orientation.

3.2.2 HYPOTHESIS TWO

There is mixed evidence of idealised images affecting an individual's body image. Although there are studies which have failed to find a significant negative relationship between exposure to ideals and body image (Champion & Furnham, 1999; Cusumano & Thompson, 1997; Martin & Kennedy, 1993), many researchers suggest media exposure of the thin ideal has a negative impact on body satisfaction (Cahill & Mussap, 2007; Durkin & Paxton, 2002; Heinberg et al., 1995; Posavac et al., 1998) and several meta-analyses support this notion (Grabe et al., 2008; Groesz et al., 2002; Holmstrom, 2004). In addition, a review by López-Guimerà et al. (2010) concluded in light of accumulated evidence that repeated exposure to media ideals affects body image. As such, the second hypothesis states:

H₂: Participants who view an Idealised Model advertisement will experience lower Body/Facial Image than those participants who view Non-idealised Model or No Model advertisements.

3.2.3 HYPOTHESIS THREE

Several researchers have linked body image or facial image with cosmetics use (Cash & Cash, 1982; Cash et al., 1989; Guthrie et al., 2008), and associated traits such as self-esteem (Cash et al., 1985; Robertson et al., 2008). When wearing cosmetics, women express a more positive body image than when they are not wearing any cosmetics (Cash & Cash, 1982). Therefore, it is possible that participants with a lower body image will seek to improve their feelings through purchase and use of cosmetic products. In addition, it has been suggested that cosmetics advertisers lower self-image by exposing individuals to images of highly attractive models, while simultaneously presenting the brand as a means to experience relief from those negative emotions (Apaolaza-Ibáñez et al., 2011). In conjunction with Hypothesis Two, Hypothesis Three captures this process. Thus:

H₃: Participants with a lower Body/Facial Image will exhibit greater Purchase Intention.

3.2.4 HYPOTHESIS FOUR

In her study of social comparison and advertising with idealised images, Richins (1991, p. 82) reported “even though ads with attractive models may have resulted in lower satisfaction

with the self, subjects found the ads appealing”. Similarly, Bower and Landreth (2001) reported a significant difference in consumers’ product evaluations between groups who viewed a lipstick advertisement with a highly attractive model versus a normally attractive model. Furthermore, Nichols and Schumann (2012) found a consistent preference for aspirational (rather than assimilative) models for fashion accessories and clothing. Taken together these results suggest:

H₄: Participants who view the Idealised Model advertisement will have a more positive Attitude toward the Ad, compared to those who view a Non-idealised Model or No Model advertisement.

However, Bower (2001) found when significantly negatively impacted by an idealised image, women will evaluate the model and the advertised product negatively. Similarly, Antioco et al. (2012) found an interaction effect for self-esteem and exposure to ideals which impacted on purchase intention, which is discussed more fully in the covariates section later in this chapter.

3.2.5 HYPOTHESIS FIVE

There is limited literature which directly investigates the use of regulatory references, however, authors have poorly distinguished between the two different types of goal message frames. Confusion exists when results are attributed to regulatory focus in studies in which conditions differed in both regulatory focus and regulatory reference. However, the studies in which a regulatory reference is paired with a regulatory focus frame generally conclude the message frames containing a desired reference are preferable to those with undesired reference (e.g. Buda & Zhang, 2000; Chang, 2007; Cheng & Wu, 2010). Furthermore, a range of message framing literature was presented in Chapter Two, Table 2-2, which drew from several different theories. Although there were some exceptions (Meyerowitz & Chaiken, 1987; Thomas et al., 2011), the general consensus was that positive advertising messages were superior to negative advertising messages (Arora, 2007; Buda & Zhang, 2000; Chang, 2007; Kulkarni & Yuan, 2014). Synthesising these results, it is possible to infer:

H₅: Participants who view an advertisement with a Desired Reference message frame will have a more positive Attitude toward the Ad, compared to those who view an Undesired Reference message frame.

3.2.6 HYPOTHESIS SIX

Hypothesis Six is consistent with the general consensus that attitude toward the ad is part of the process through which advertising influences purchase intentions (MacKenzie, Lutz, & Belch, 1986).

H₆: Attitude toward the Ad will have a positive relationship with Purchase Intention.

3.2.7 HYPOTHESES SEVEN AND EIGHT

Hypotheses Seven and Eight pertain to the goal compatibility literature discussed in Chapter Two. The basis of goal compatibility is that advertising appeals will be most effective when they match viewers self-concept or goals (Zinkhan & Hong, 1991) and this theory is supported by several studies which find persuasion effects for messages which were consistent with participants goals (Kim, 2006), even when those goals are primed (Kareklas et al., 2012). In the current study this suggests participants who are primed with a hoped-for [feared] goal orientation and presented with a desired [undesired] appeal will experience a goal match-up. Therefore, Hypotheses Seven and Eight state:

H₇: Participants with matched goals will have a more positive perception of the ad than participants with mismatched goals.

H₈: Participants with matched goals will have a greater intention to purchase than participants with mismatched goals.

3.3 COVARIATES

In addition to the hypothesised relationships, the effects of several covariates are considered. Each of the variables is included in the current research due their possible influence on the dependant variables. This section discusses definitions of each of these six variables and includes a small review of their relevance to the main constructs of this research.

3.3.1 BODY IMAGE

The concept of body image is complex and elusive, and defining it is “tricky” (Thompson et al., 1999, p. 9) This research adopts the inclusive definition of ‘body image’, popularised by Grogan (2008), which asserts that body image is a person’s perceptions, thoughts and feelings about his or her body. Exposure to idealised images is a significant risk factor for poor body

image (Levine & Smolak, 1996), and in light of accumulated evidence López-Guimerà et al. (2010) concluded repeated exposure to ideals negatively affects body image. Furthermore, women who already have body image issues are more vulnerable to ideals (Groesz et al., 2002). In addition, some cosmetics researchers report on relationships between body image and cosmetic use, both that low body image predicts cosmetic use (Dickman, 2010) and that women wearing cosmetics express a more positive body image than when not wearing any (Cash & Cash, 1982). In the context of sun protection advertisements, some authors have suggested a (weak) relationship between body consciousness or body image and effectiveness of message frames (Hevey et al., 2010; Thomas et al., 2011). Therefore, it is possible that body image may influence the attitude towards message frames in the current study.

3.3.2 FACIAL IMAGE

Guthrie et al. (2008) proposed the phrase ‘facial image’ as a subset of ‘body image’, specific to areas of the face, including eyes, eyebrows, lips, cheeks, skin complexion and the overall facial appearance. However, few studies have examined facial image as a separate construct of body image, and much of the research focussed on cosmetic usage examines body image as one entity (Guthrie et al., 2008). The lack of research considering facial image is concerning, however the few studies which do report relationships between facial image and cosmetic use (Guthrie et al., 2008; Kim & Kim, 2011). Therefore, the facial image measure and construct are treated with caution in the current research and both Body Image and Facial Image are considered.

3.3.3 SELF-ESTEEM

Self-esteem is defined as a positive or negative attitude toward the self (Rosenberg, 1989). Although, self-esteem measures tend to mask other domains of self-concept (Knox et al., 1998) it is a highly utilised covariate in a multitude of studies relevant to the main variables in the current research. Some authors have measured what is often referred to as ‘state’ self-esteem (Martin & Gentry, 1997), while others investigate global self-esteem (Clay et al., 2005). The current research only considers global self-esteem as body-image is also being measured. Self-esteem has been negatively correlated with cosmetic use (Robertson et al., 2008) and adornments such as cosmetics are used to improve self-esteem (Bloch & Richins, 1992). Exposure to non-idealised models in cosmetic advertising appears to improve self-esteem (Antioco et al., 2012), a finding consistent with other studies considering ideals (Evans, 2003; Hawkins, Richards, Granley, & Stein, 2004; Martin & Gentry, 1997).

Furthermore, Antioco et al. (2012) found individuals with high self-esteem preferred idealised models to non-idealised models. Self-esteem can act as a moderator (Ricciardelli & McCabe, 2001) or a mediator (Cahill & Mussap, 2007) for the impact of ideals. Self-esteem is also an important motivator for behaviour in the possible selves, or self-regulatory referencing literature (Bagozzi & Dholakia, 1999; Markus & Kunda, 1986; Sirgy, 1982, 1985; Sirgy & Danes, 1982). Girls' self-esteem has also been correlated with the perceived ability to avoid a feared possible self (Knox et al., 1998). Moreover, self-esteem is correlated with many of the other covariates in this current study, including body image (Becker et al., 2002; Cash & Henry, 1995), social comparison, as well as possible covariates which were not measured in the current research, such as body dissatisfaction and drive for thinness (Egbert & Belcher, 2012).

3.3.4 COSMETIC USE

Although not all researchers who have studied cosmetic advertising have measured existing cosmetic use prior to exposure to the advertisement (e.g. Antioco et al., 2012), this variable could be a useful predictor of both attitude towards cosmetic advertisements and intention to purchase a cosmetic product. It is logical to assume high cosmetic use would have a positive relationship with intent to purchase cosmetic products. Women who use more cosmetic products tend to use them in more situations too (Cash & Cash, 1982) which suggests cosmetic use and situational cosmetic use can be combined to indicate an implicit measure of involvement in cosmetics.

3.3.5 INTERNALISATION

Internalisation of ideals is possibly the most widely studied risk factor for negative outcomes of exposure to ideals. Multiple studies reporting internalisation as a mediator between exposure to ideals and negative outcomes, such as lowered self-esteem, trait depression, identity confusion, and body dissatisfaction (e.g. Cahill & Mussap, 2007; Carlson Jones, 2004; Clay et al., 2005; Cusumano & Thompson, 1997; Heinberg et al., 1995; Stice, 1994; Thompson & Stice, 2001; Yamamiya, Cash, Melnyk, Posavac, & Posavac, 2005). It is possible that internalisation of ideals will impact upon the relationship between exposure to idealised models and lowered body image, as hypothesised in the current research.

3.3.6 SOCIAL COMPARISON TO MODELS

Social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954) has also been extensively researched when examining the effects of media ideals (Botta, 1999, 2000; Dittmar & Howard, 2004; Ridolfi et al., 2011; Tiggemann & Slater, 2004; Want, 2009). Because the current study is concerned with advertising, rather than comparison tendencies to everyday people, it is comparison to models (Strowman, 1996, 1999) which is specifically measured. Internalisation and social comparison have been drawn together in order to explain the differing impact exposure to ideals has on individuals (Want, 2009). For example, Dittmar and Howard (2004) found high internalisation combined with tendency for social comparison increases likelihood of negative outcomes to ideal exposure, and Clay et al. (2005) proposed internalisation operates as a frame of reference for social comparison. Somewhat echoing the priming of possible selves, researchers have experimented with either encouraging or discouraging participants to engage in social comparisons during exposure to media ideals (Hargreaves & Tiggemann, 2002; Posavac et al., 2001; Tiggemann & Slater, 2004), however the results of this kind of experimental manipulation have not been clear.

3.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The purpose of this chapter was to discuss the hypotheses driving the current research. Many of the hypotheses propose an effect of the manipulated conditions; however, participants' perception of the manipulations is also included in this research as part of the proposed conceptual model. Finally, a description and summary of each of the potential covariates was provided. Following this chapter, Chapter Four provides a discussion of the methodology used to test and ascertain this model and accompanying hypotheses.

4 METHODOLOGY

This chapter explains the research methodology used to test the model and hypotheses presented in the previous chapter. First this chapter will preview the research design before further explaining the development of the priming scenario and the advertisements for the experimental conditions. The following section discusses the stimuli development and pre-testing phases, manipulation checks and the adjustments which were made during this process. Next, the experimental procedures are explained. Finally, this chapter covers the development and administration of the final questionnaire.

4.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

As covered in the review of the literature, intention to use products is able to be manipulated by activating different goal orientations (hoped-for and feared selves) (Sobh, 2011) and marketers use goal attainment to motivate consumption (Bagozzi & Dholakia, 1999). This said, advertising is one of the primary tools for controlling consumerism in the cosmetics industry (Harrison, 2000) and cosmetic advertisers select highly attractive models (Apaolaza-Ibáñez et al., 2011) which have been shown to affect viewers body image as opposed to a non-idealised images or control images (Grabe et al., 2008; Groesz et al., 2002; Holmstrom, 2004). In addition, when a consumer's primed goal matches up with the copy of an advertisement, the message is more effective (Aaker & Lee, 2001; Kareklas et al., 2012).

In order to test these relationships in the context of cosmetic products, a 2x3x2 experimental design is developed.

4.2 EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

This research will utilise a 2x3x2 between-subjects, full factorial experimental design to test the effects of possible selves priming (hoped-for and feared), exposure to beauty ideal images (idealised model, non-idealised model and no model), and message framing (desired reference and undesired reference) on consumers intention to purchase. This design produces twelve different experimental conditions (see Table 4-1).

<i>Possible Self</i>		<i>Hoped-for self</i>		<i>Feared self</i>		
<i>Message Framing</i>	<i>Model Idealisation</i>					
	Idealised Model x Desired Reference	Non-idealised Model x Desired Reference	No Model x Desired Reference	Idealised Model x Desired Reference	Non-idealised Model x Desired Reference	No Model x Desired Reference
	Idealised Model x Un-desired Reference	Non-idealised Model x Un-desired Reference	No Model x Un-desired Reference	Idealised Model x Un-desired Reference	Non-idealised Model x Un-desired Reference	No Model x Un-desired Reference

Table 4-1: Experimental Conditions

4.2.1 JUSTIFICATION OF EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

4.2.1.1 Priming (*Hoped-for and Feared*)

Feared selves have been somewhat disregarded by self-concept scholars (Carver et al., 1999), however, some authors do consider this neglected concept and have stressed the importance of these possible selves in several contexts (Carver et al., 1999; Knox et al., 1998; Ogilvie, 1987; Ogilvie & Clark, 1992; Ogilvie et al., 2008; Sobh, 2011). Therefore, the current study attempts to understand whether hoped-for or feared selves have more influence on consumers' cosmetic product purchase intentions.

4.2.1.2 Image (*Idealised Model, Non-idealised Model and No Model*)

One limitation of the model idealisation research is the inconsistencies in the alternative stimuli used in studies and many researchers use irrelevant images of houses or gardens, or overweight models (Holmstrom, 2004). The current research addresses this critique, and includes both non-idealised model and no model images as alternative stimuli to the idealised model.

4.2.1.3 Message Frame (*desired and undesired*)

Regulatory goal orientations could be situationally activated through marketing communication (Sobh, 2011). The section on message frames in Chapter Two, specifically, Table 2-3 demonstrated the complexity and variety of possible combinations of message framing components. However, for simplicity, the current research only tests single sided, regulatory referenced messages.

4.3 PRE-STUDY EXPERT INTERVIEWS

To develop the images and message frames used for the manipulations in this research, a series of informal interviews with an expert panel were conducted. The panel consisted of print and design students, trained makeup consultants and marketing postgraduate students from the University of Canterbury. Interviews ranged in duration from twenty minutes to an hour. The guided discussion was tailored to the interviewee's specific expertise. The main discussion points were goals associated with cosmetic use, cosmetic advertising models, and advertising appeals. The purpose of these interviews was to help identify commonalities in cosmetic advertisements in order to assist with the development of the images and messages for the different manipulated conditions. The development of the images and messages took place alongside the interviews, therefore, interviewees viewed and discussed differing images and messages in their respective stages of development.

Firstly, participants were asked to describe components of a selection of cosmetic advertisements. A range of similarities were identified, pertaining to the lighting and colouring of the advertisement, the general advertisement layout, the facial characteristics of the models and the extent of the digital editing of the models. Next, a collection of images and models were shown and discussed in regard to their similarities and differences to the models in real cosmetics advertising. Effort was made to present a range of young women with differing hair and eye colour, wearing different amounts of makeup and in a variety of poses. Participants were asked to select their preference of model and pose and make suggestions for editing the advertisement model for each condition (discussed further in the following section).

Another aspect of the interviews was to identify the underlying goals associated with different cosmetic products to aid in the selection of the advertised product. Participants discussed their use of mascara, concealer and lipstick. Some interviewees also assisted in the development of the message frames for the advertisement appeal. Marketing post graduate students were also shown several options for the message frames and asked to discuss the wording they had seen in cosmetic advertisements along with their suggestions of stimuli for the separate manipulations. Summary reports for each of the expert interviews are available in Appendix 8.1.

4.4 STIMULI DEVELOPMENT

4.4.1 GOAL ORIENTATION PRIMING SCENARIOS

The visualisation task used as a priming scenario has been developed by several authors. In their studies of possible selves at different ages, Hooker and Kaus (1992, 1994) adapted questions developed by Cross and Markus (1991) to create hoped-for and feared priming scenarios. Later, Sobh (2011) adapted the scenario again to fit in the context of age-related appearance goals. Finally, for the purpose of this research, the wording was adapted to focus on appearance without an age reference. The final passage is presented in Table 4-2, appropriately adjusted for the feared-self condition.

*Everybody thinks about their appearance to some extent. When doing so we usually have vivid representations of how we might look, especially at important occasions. Often individuals think about what we **hope (fear)** to look like. These visualized desired images are called the **hoped-for self (feared self)**.*

*Take a moment to think about the **hoped-for self (feared self)** you aspire to look like. It might help to think about this in a particular situation where being this **hoped-for self (feared self)** is important to you (e.g. social occasion, being with your partner etc.)*

*In the space below jot down some of the characteristics of that **hoped-for self (feared self)** you just visualized for yourself. Different people have different appearance characteristics that are important to them so there is no right or wrong answer.*

Table 4-2: Priming Passage – adapted from Sobh (2011)

4.4.2 CONSIDERATIONS FOR DEVELOPING STATIC ADVERTISEMENTS

This research used static advertisements for two key reasons: reader-paced processing and ease of stimuli manipulation. Firstly, print media is reader paced, allowing participants time to process the details of the images. Secondly, static advertisements (as opposed to dynamic advertisements such as film or interactive online advertisements) are easier to manipulate. This format was most suited to manipulating the characteristics of the model. In addition, women seek magazines for cosmetic advice (Britton, 2012), thus cosmetic advertising is regularly seen in magazines (Gayatri, 2008) and more recently online. Therefore, constructing a landscape advertisement allows placement in a magazine spread or online *banner* ad.

4.4.3 DEVELOPMENT OF THE ADVERTISEMENTS

4.4.3.1 *Selection of the Advertisement Model*

The model was selected from the large number of high-quality images freely available on the Internet. As mentioned previously, a variety of different images and models were collected and discussed in the expert interviews. The final model was selected due her photograph having similar lighting to existing cosmetic advertisements as well as being a high quality image with nonspecific clothing. Furthermore, the model was directly facing the camera and her face was not obscured by other body parts or hair, making the face easier to manipulate. The original, unedited image is available in Appendix 8.2.1.

4.4.3.2 *Selection of the Brand*

As cosmetic consumers already have developed personality perceptions of existing cosmetic brands (Guthrie et al., 2008), it was necessary to select a brand which has no prior perceptions attached to it. The current study uses a relatively unknown brand based in Dubai; *Vasili Paspal*, which is from the *Nereen* healthcare portfolio (Nereen Healthcare, n.d.). It is unclear whether or not *Vasili Paspal* products are currently able to be purchased but the brand is listed on the website (Nereen Healthcare, n.d.). In addition to being an unknown brand, the *Vasili Paspal* logo appears relatively congruent to competitors' logos in the cosmetics industry.

4.4.3.3 *Selection of the Product*

The selection of the product is of great importance to the current research. The product needed to be something that most participants would be comfortable using and where they would be aware of its heuristic benefits (because they would not be able to experience the product). Furthermore, the selected product needed to be a relatively homogenous so that that a variety of individuals with differing skin colours and skin types would use the product in a variety of situations. In addition, consumers may already associate specific products with either hoped-for or feared selves (e.g. concealer is used to cover flaws, while lipstick pumps and draws attention to lips). The possible products considered were those listed by the CCUI (Cash & Cash, 1982), and, mascara was selected as the product in this research. Mascara is the most commonly used cosmetic product (Britton, 2012; Dickman, 2010) and a consumer may use mascara either to "thicken puny eyelashes or to enhance beautiful eyes" (Bower & Landreth, 2001, p. 2), meaning the message framing and goal orientation would be able to effectively manipulated.

The visual image of the product was a plain, sleek mascara bottle with the *Vasili Paspal* logo digitally added. Effort was made to select a relatively neutral looking product image so associations with existing brands were not made.

4.4.3.4 *Manipulating Idealisation of Model*

The model was digitally altered in the graphic design program GIMP. Features identified in the interviews for each condition were edited. The idealised image was created by slimming the models face, making her features perfectly symmetrical, thinning her nose, lightening the whites of her eyes, changing her eye colour to blue, giving her blonder hair, airbrushing all pores out, smoothing and brightening her under-eye areas and adding additional contouring to her cheekbones, brow-line and lips. Finally, false lashes were added to her natural lashes, consistent with mascara advertisements (Rea, 2012). The non-idealised model was given less shapely eyebrows, freckles, a few pimples, slightly darker hair, a little less eye and lip makeup, a stumper neck, fine chin hairs and slightly asymmetric ears. The alterations and the interviews were conducted concurrently so each participant made suggestions for improvement to better match the condition. See Appendices 8.2.2 and 8.2.3 for the resulting images.

4.4.3.5 *Manipulating Message Frames*

The regulatory referenced message frames were also developed in tandem with the expert interviews. Regulatory references are the desired and undesired states that people regulate in reference to, separate of their anticipation of consequences (Higgins, 1997). Interviewees discussed their references for their use of mascara and these responses were sorted into desired or undesired frame motivations. During the latter interviews, several iterations of possible message frames were discussed. Effort was made to make the phrases semantically similar. The resulting phrases are presented in Table 4-3 below.

Always have luscious lashes: Vasili Paspal : Lash-ious Mascara

Never leave your lashes lacking: Vasili Paspal : Lash-ious Mascara

Table 4-3: Message Frame Manipulations

4.5 PRE-STUDY QUESTIONNAIRES

The stimuli developed during the interview process underwent manipulation checks prior to pre-testing to ensure the three manipulations were successful. Three pre-study questionnaires were issued to further develop the manipulations. Each of these studies recruited participants using a convenience sampling technique via Facebook. In each case no remuneration was offered. The results from these pre-studies were used to develop both the final stimuli and manipulation check questions.

4.5.1 PRE-STUDY QUESTIONNAIRE ONE

The aim of the first pre-study was to ensure the mean perceptions of the advertisement model and the advertisement appeals were in the right direction. The survey was sent to twenty-five individuals via Facebook private messages, all whom were females aged between eighteen and thirty-five. Nineteen participants completed the survey. No remuneration was offered. Each participant viewed either the idealised or the non-idealised image of the model and were asked to describe both positive and negative characteristics of the image they saw. Participants were also presented with seven-point semantic differential scales asking about the model in comparison to other models in cosmetic advertising (very dissimilar/very similar, non-idealised/idealised) and the extent to which the advertisement encouraged natural beauty and flaws (the image either encourages natural beauty/doesn't encourage natural beauty and encourages covering flaws/doesn't encourage covering flaws).

The next section of the questionnaire presented participants with the negative message frame asking them to complete a seven-point Likert scale (strongly disagree – strongly agree) with a variety of statements regarding the phrase (e.g. the phrase is positive, the message makes you fear looking your worst). This process was repeated for the positive message frame.

Basic descriptive statistics were calculated to ensure the manipulations were creating effects in the correct direction. Means for both the image and the copy indicated the manipulations were creating the desired effects. The written feedback collected in this pre-study was utilised to further develop the images. Specifically, participants identified the non-idealised model had strange eyes that 'didn't look right'. Both models were critiqued for being too expressionless. These issues were improved for the next pre-study images by re-adjusting the eyes and replacing the mouth on both models with a slight smile. The adjusted images are available in

Appendices 8.2.4 and 8.2.5. The message frames appeared to be successfully manipulated. The entire questionnaire is included in Appendix 8.3.

4.5.2 PRE-STUDY QUESTIONNAIRE TWO

The aim of the second pre-study was to test if the differences between the means for the manipulated model idealisation and message framing conditions were significant. Responses were collected from thirty-seven new participants also via Facebook. The recruitment message specified participants had to be females aged between eighteen and thirty-five, a copy of the recruitment message is available in Appendix 8.4.1. This questionnaire replicated Pre-study One with the updated model images and slightly improved question wording. Nineteen participants viewed the Idealised Model image, while eighteen were exposed to the Non-idealised Model image. The entire questionnaire is available in Appendix 8.4.

The items for the image manipulation were collapsed into one variable. The mean model idealisation for the idealised model condition was larger (mean = 5.89) than the non-idealised condition (mean = 4.44) and the difference was significant ($t = 3.81, p < .05$).

Similarly, a mean score for the message framing manipulations was calculated by combining the six items measuring the message frames. The undesired referenced message frame was rated more negatively (mean = 3.66) than the desired reference (mean = 4.30) and this difference was significant ($t = -3.29, p < .05$).

4.5.3 PRE-STUDY QUESTIONNAIRE THREE

The third and final pre-study tested the effectiveness of the priming condition. Again administered on Facebook, this study attracted forty-six participants using a convenience sampling approach (see Appendix 8.5.1 for a copy of the recruitment message). Two participants did not fit the demographic profile and were excluded. Nineteen participants engaged in the hoped-for self task, while twenty-five participants completed the feared self task. The questions participants were asked were based on a questionnaire developed by Lockwood et al. (2002). The entire questionnaire is included in Appendix 8.5.

A mean score for the possible selves priming manipulations was calculated by combining the eight items measuring the goal orientation. The results show the hoped-for selves were more likely to have an approach goal orientation (mean = 4.03) than the feared selves participants (mean = 3.44) and that this difference was significant ($t = 3.49, p < .05$).

Furthermore, when only the most individually significant factors were completed into a single mean variables the manipulation was more successful ($t = 4.09, p < .05$).

The results of the three pre-studies indicated the three manipulations were successful and that a pre-test of the entire online questionnaire could be developed and initiated. Following the completion of pre-studies, the final advertisements were created in GIMP. The six advertisements are presented in Appendices 8.6.1 - 8.6.6.

4.6 COMPLETE QUESTIONNAIRE DEVELOPMENT

4.6.1 INDEPENDENT VARIABLE MEASURES

4.6.1.1 Goal Orientation Priming

The goal referencing literature has employed several different means of measuring reference saliency. Several studies which have used priming to manipulate reference saliency asked participants to describe their relevant self-image and used coders and to assess participants qualitative answers to evaluate the effectiveness of their manipulations (Hooker & Kaus, 1992, 1994; Sobh, 2011). Another common method for checking manipulated self-saliency is measuring response times when participants sort both desired and undesired self-descriptors (Norman & Aron, 2003; Ruvolo & Markus, 1992; Wheeler et al., 2008), where faster reaction times are expected for the descriptors which match the primed condition. Neither of these methods were appropriate for the current research. Instead, a questionnaire developed by Lockwood et al. (2002) which measures regulatory focus in an academic context informed the development of a seven-point Likert scale that was used as the manipulation check for this variable. The exact wording is presented in Table 4-4.

Coding	Likert Items (not at all true of me currently/very true of me currently)
	<i>* = reverse scaled item</i>
<i>P_MC.1_1</i>	I am focused on what I desire to look like.
<i>P_MC.1_2</i>	I think about ways I can prevent myself from looking unattractive. *
<i>P_MC.1_3</i>	I am more oriented toward highlighting my best features than covering my flaws.
<i>P_MC.1_4</i>	I am better at imagining what I don't want to look like (than what I do want to look like). *
<i>P_MC.1_5</i>	It is important to me I don't look my worst, especially at special occasions. *
<i>P_MC.1_6</i>	I can easily imagine ways to achieve my desired appearance.
<i>P_MC.1_7</i>	I imagine how I feel when people notice my best features.
<i>P_MC.1_8</i>	I am anxious that people will notice my flaws.*

Table 4-4: Scale Items for Goal Orientation

4.6.1.2 *Appearance Ideals*

This manipulation check pertains to the model idealisation in the advertisement. As discussed in prior sections one image was highly perfected while the other showed visible, minor imperfections such as facial hair, asymmetric features and blemishes. Both images were intended to be ‘attractive’, and the difference lies in the extent to which the idealised model had been perfected to a societal ideal, whereas the other still maintained natural, common ‘flaws’. However, there was not a suitable existing scale to measure this manipulation. Instead, a scale was developed for the current research. This scale was informed by other appearance related manipulation checks used by authors in this field (Antioco et al., 2012; Bower, 2001; Clay et al., 2005; Dion et al., 1972; Kahle & Homer, 1985; Martin & Kennedy, 1993; Richins, 1991; Trampe et al., 2010). However, many previous studies have focused on body size or attractiveness, rather than the extent to which the model had been idealised. Therefore, it was necessary to adjust the questions in order to capture the different ‘beauty’ focus of this particular manipulation as seen in Table 4-5.

<i>Coding</i>	<i>Semantic Differential Items</i>
<i>MI_MC1_1</i>	Less idealized than other models/More idealized than other models
<i>MI_MC1_2</i>	Does not encourage covering your flaws/Encourages covering your flaws
<i>MI_MC1_3</i>	Non-idealized/Idealized
<i>MI_MC1_4</i>	Does not encourage unrealistic beauty/Encourages unrealistic beauty

Table 4-5: Scale Items for Appearance Idealisation

4.6.1.3 *Message Framing*

The manipulation checks for message framing were informed by several previous studies as message framing manipulation checks are often adapted to specifically reflect the message conditions. Several authors directly ask participants whether the framing salience is positive or negative (Arora, 2007; Kulkarni & Yuan, 2014). Huang (1997) studied the emotional response of participants after viewing an advertisement, measuring whether the advertisement produced happiness, humour and loving feelings. Furthermore, in their study of green advertising Kareklas et al. (2012, p. 29) had participants rate the extent to which the message was about ‘maintaining beauty’ or ‘preventing decline’, while Kim (2006) asked participants directly the extent to which the ads contain enhancement or protection messages. Similarly, the manipulation checks for the current study adapted this concept to measure whether the advertisement message was promoting desired or undesired self references. The items for the resulting scale are presented in Table 4-6.

Coding	<i>Likert Items (strongly disagree/strongly agree)</i>
	<i>* = reverse scaled item</i>
<i>MF_MC3_1</i>	The phrase is negative.*
<i>MF_MC3_2</i>	The phrase makes people fear looking inferior to others.*
<i>MF_MC3_3</i>	The phrase makes me think about what I would like to look like.
<i>MF_MC3_4</i>	The phrase is positive.
<i>MF_MC3_5</i>	The phrase encourages people to look their best.
<i>MF_MC3_6</i>	The phrase makes people think about their flaws.*

Table 4-6: Scale Items for Message Frame

4.6.2 DEPENDANT VARIABLE MEASURES

4.6.2.1 Purchase Intention

Intention to Purchase was measured using the MacKenzie et al. (1986) three-item, seven-point semantic differential scale (see Table 4-7). This scale has a Cronbach alpha coefficient between .88 and .90 (MacKenzie et al., 1986).

Coding	Semantic Differential Items
	<i>* = reverse scaled item</i>
<i>PCI_1</i>	Unlikely/Likely
<i>PCI_2</i>	Probable/Improbable*
<i>PCI_3</i>	Possible/Impossible*

Table 4-7: Scale Items for Purchase Intention

4.6.2.2 Attitude towards the Ad

The second dependant variable measure captured the viewer's attitude towards the advertisement. This scale was adopted from Holbrook and Batra (1987) and later used by Antioco et al. (2012) who both viewed attitude towards the ad as an indicator of advertising effectiveness. Holbrook and Batra (1987) reported the inter-item reliability for this measure was .99. The specific items can be viewed in Table 4-8.

Coding	Semantic Differential Items
	<i>* = reverse scaled item</i>
<i>AA1_1</i>	I dislike the advertisement/I like the advertisement
<i>AA1_2</i>	I react favorably to the advertisement/I react unfavorably to the advertisement*
<i>AA1_3</i>	I feel negatively toward the advertisement/I feel positively toward the advertisement
<i>AA1_4</i>	The advertisement is good/The advertisement is bad*

Table 4-8: Scale Items for Attitude Towards the Ad

4.6.3 DEMOGRAPHIC MEASURES

Seven demographic questions were included in this research. The format and wording can be viewed in Appendices 8.8.16 - 8.8.17. Both gender and age questions further served as qualifiers for the study because males cosmetic use is driven by different factors than females (Harrison, 2008) and research has shown women's body image differs in later life and requires independent attention (Roy & Payette, 2012).

Several of these demographic variables potential effects on cosmetic use, appearance goals and purchase behaviour is discussed in the literature. For example, a woman's appearance goals could change over her lifetime. Or both current employment and number of children may impact on a women's disposable income allotted to cosmetic products, while relationship status could influence cosmetic use.

4.6.4 COVARIATE MEASURES

4.6.4.1 *Body Image*

Body image was measured using an abbreviated version of the Body Self-relations Questionnaire. Specifically, this study focusses on the physical aspect (rather than health) evaluation which has an internal consistency of .88 (Brown, Cash, & Mikulka, 1990). This scale has been widely used in body image literature (Cusumano & Thompson, 1997; Heinberg et al., 1995) A larger version was pre-tested and abbreviated. The final six items are presented in Table 4-9 and were measured on a seven-point Likert scale.

<i>Coding</i>	<i>Likert Items (strongly disagree/ strongly agree)</i>
<i>BI.1_1</i>	I do things to keep physically fit.
<i>BI.1_2</i>	I do things to increase my physical strength.
<i>BI.1_3</i>	I like the way I look without my clothes.
<i>BI.1_4</i>	My body is sexually appealing.
<i>BI.1_5</i>	It is important that I always look good.
<i>BI.1_6</i>	I check my appearance in the mirror whenever I can.

Table 4-9: Scale Items for Body Image

4.6.4.2 *Self-esteem*

Self-esteem was measured using Rosenberg's (1989) popularly cited Self-esteem Inventory (Cahill & Mussap, 2007; Cusumano & Thompson, 1997; Durkin & Paxton, 2002). In its original form this scale only measured the ten items on four points (strongly agree, agree, disagree and strongly disagree), however adaptations use three (Cahill & Mussap, 2007; Clay et al., 2005) five (Baker & Gringart, 2009) and seven-point Likert scales (Egbert & Belcher,

2012). This scale reportedly has coefficient alphas ranging between .73 and .90 (Cahill & Mussap, 2007; Durkin & Paxton, 2002; Hawkins et al., 2004). The current study tested self-esteem on a seven-point scale, see Table 4-10.

<i>Coding</i>	<i>Likert Items (not at all true of me currently/very true of me currently)</i>
	<i>* = reverse scaled item</i>
<i>SE.1_1</i>	I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.
<i>SE.1_2</i>	I feel that I have a number of good qualities.
<i>SE.1_3</i>	I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.*
<i>SE.1_4</i>	I am able to do things as well as most other people.
<i>SE.1_5</i>	I feel that I do not have much to be proud of.*
<i>SE.1_6</i>	I take a positive attitude toward myself.
<i>SE.1_7</i>	On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.
<i>SE.1_8</i>	I wish I could have more respect for myself.*
<i>SE.1_9</i>	I certainly feel useless at times.*
<i>SE.1_10</i>	At times I think I am no good at all.*

Table 4-10: Scale Items for Self-esteem

4.6.4.3 *Cosmetic Use*

The measures of cosmetic use were informed by the Cash and Cash (1982) Situational Cosmetic Use Inventory (CCUI). In its original format, the CCUI asked participants about their daily use of fifteen cosmetic products, which served as a baseline measure and was then compared to their self-reported use of the same set of cosmetics in various situations (e.g. shopping with female friends, going to a party, exercising). However, this measure was overcomplicated for its purpose in the current study and therefore was adapted similarly to Guthrie et al. (2008). The format of this scale is presented in Table 4-11. Participants are presented with five cosmetic types and asked to indicate their use of each, in addition, their situational use of cosmetics is measured by five different situations.

Coding	<i>Please indicate your general everyday use of the following cosmetics.</i> <i>(never, rarely, once in a while, about half the time, often, most of the time, always)</i>
<i>CU.1_1</i>	Face Makeup (e.g. concealer, foundation, BB cream, powder).
<i>CU.1_2</i>	Mascara
<i>CU.1_3</i>	Eye Liner
<i>CU.1_4</i>	Eye Shadow
<i>CU.1_5</i>	Lip color (Lipstick, lip liner, colored gloss)
	<i>Please indicate how your cosmetics use differs in the following situations compared to your normal everyday use.(significantly less, less, somewhat less, about the same, somewhat more, more, significantly more)</i>
<i>SCU.2_1</i>	Night out with males and females
<i>SCU.2_2</i>	Shopping with female friends
<i>SCU.2_3</i>	Exercising
<i>SCU.2_4</i>	Spending the day at home
<i>SCU.2_5</i>	On a date

Table 4-11: Scale Items for Cosmetic Use

4.6.4.4 Facial Image

Much of the literature on appearance satisfaction examines body image as one entity rather than considering facial image. Guthrie et al. (2008) developed a five-point facial image scale (see Table 4-12), based on the Body Areas Satisfaction Scale (BASS, Brown et al., 1990). The scale comprises of two questions, six items measure satisfaction with different areas of the face and another six measure importance of each area. Unfortunately Guthrie et al. (2008) reported no statistics of the internal consistency of their scale, however it is deemed appropriate for the current research because cosmetic usage could be more directly related to facial satisfaction than body image as a whole. Similarly to the BASS (Brown et al., 1990) scale asked participants to rate their satisfaction with and overall importance of each of their facial features. The current study adapted the scale to a seven-point Likert scale.

Coding	<i>Please indicate your satisfaction with each of the following areas of your face.(dislike extremely/like extremely)</i>
<i>SS.1_1</i>	Eyes
<i>SS.1_2</i>	Eyebrows
<i>SS.1_3</i>	Lips
<i>SS.1_4</i>	Cheeks/cheekbones
<i>SS.1_5</i>	Skin/complexion
<i>SS.1_6</i>	Overall face
<i>Please indicate the importance of each of the following areas of your face to your overall appearance.(not at all important/ extremely important)</i>	
<i>SO.2_1</i>	Eyes
<i>SO.2_2</i>	Eyebrows
<i>SO.2_3</i>	Lips
<i>SO.2_4</i>	Cheeks/cheekbones
<i>SO.2_5</i>	Skin/complexion
<i>SO.2_6</i>	Overall face

Table 4-12: Scale Items for Facial Image

4.6.4.5 Internalisation

One of the most commonly employed scales in considering recognition and acceptance of societally sanctioned standards is the Sociocultural Attitudes Towards Appearance Questionnaire (SATAQ) (Heinberg et al., 1995). The current study utilises the findings of Thompson, van den Berg, Roehrig, Guarda, and Heinberg (2004) who developed and validated the SATAQ-3 producing factor loadings which differentiated information, pressures, general internalisation and athletic internalisation (Thompson et al., 2004, p. 299). The current study measured general internalisation, based on the findings of (Thompson et al., 2004). The eight-item seven-point Likert scale is presented in Table 4-13.

Coding	<i>Likert Items (strongly disagree/strongly agree)</i>
<i>INT.1_1</i>	I would like my body to look like the people who are on TV.
<i>INT.1_2</i>	I compare my body to the bodies of TV and movie stars.
<i>INT.1_3</i>	I would like my body to look like the models who appear in magazines.
<i>INT.1_4</i>	I compare my appearance to the appearance of TV and movie stars.
<i>INT.1_5</i>	I would like my body to look like the people who are in the movies.
<i>INT.1_6</i>	I compare my body to the bodies of people who appear in magazines.
<i>INT.1_7</i>	I wish I looked like the models in music videos.
<i>INT.1_8</i>	I compare my appearance to the appearance of people in magazines.

Table 4-13: Scale Items for Internalisation

4.6.4.6 Social Comparison to Models

The current study is concerned with participants' tendency to compare themselves to models in advertisements. In order to measure this tendency, the Comparison to Models measure originally developed by Strowman (1996) was selected, however an updated version of this measure is used in this research (Strowman, 1999). This five-point scale consists of seven items (see Table 4-14). This measure has a reported Cronbach's alpha of .86 (Dittmar & Howard, 2004; Strowman, 1999). The current research adapted the scale to a seven-point Likert scale.

<i>Coding</i>	<i>Please indicate how often you partake in the behavior described when you see female models in advertisements? (never/always)</i>
<i>SC.1_1</i>	How often to you compare yourself to them in general?
<i>SC.1_2</i>	How often to you compare your career success to theirs?
<i>SC.1_3</i>	How often to you compare your eating habits to theirs?
<i>SC.1_4</i>	How often to you compare your happiness to theirs?
<i>SC.1_5</i>	How often to you compare your intelligence to theirs?
<i>SC.1_6</i>	How often to you compare your physical appearance to theirs?
<i>SC.1_7</i>	How often to you compare your popularity to theirs?

Table 4-14: Scale Items for Social Comparison to Models

4.7 PRE-TESTING PROCEDURE

Prior to the collection of the final data, the entire experiment was pre-tested for three key reasons. Firstly, pre-testing was important in order to test the effectiveness of the final manipulations. Secondly, pre-testing was used to check participants understood how to answer the questions and allowed assessment of the reliability and validity of the selected scales for each of the constructs. Finally, pre-testing confirmed the experimental website was operational and recorded all the information required, such as the time each respondent spent on the priming task.

4.7.1 PRE-TESTING SAMPLE

In order to conduct the pre-test, students enrolled in various papers at the University of Canterbury were recruited using class email lists. Students were offered the chance to win one of five \$100 Westfield vouchers as an incentive to partake in the pre-test. Participants were told they must be females aged between eighteen and thirty-five. A copy of the recruitment email is available in Appendix 8.7.1.

The pre-test used a pulsing strategy to recruit participants. In the first wave sixteen classes were emailed, exposing the invitation to approximately 2737 students. The second wave emailed a further six classes, which exposed a further 493 students. It is possible that some students were enrolled in more than one of the classes. In total 226 participants were recruited, which created a response rate of 14.29%. The sample was relatively poor quality and 79 participants were excluded due to either incomplete responses, low viewing times or failing the demographic qualifiers. The final data set consisted of 152 participants.

4.7.2 MANIPULATION CHECKS

In order to test the effectiveness of the three different manipulations three measures were developed. Each of these measures were submitted to an independent sample t-test as well as Principle Component Analysis (with Varimax rotation) and Cronbach's alpha to test the difference between conditions as well as the dimensionality and reliability of the three manipulation checks.

4.7.2.1 *Priming Manipulation Check*

The results of the PCA for the priming manipulation check were problematic. Even after excluding three items with the lowest communalities, extraction scores for the four remaining items showed mixed loadings on two components. Furthermore, Cronbach's alpha was .305 for these four variables. For the main experiment a new manipulation check was created for the priming task which is laid out in the Redevelopment of the Questionnaire section later in this chapter.

4.7.2.2 *Manipulation Check for Appearance Ideal*

The PCA matrix for the appearance ideal manipulation check showed the measure was two dimensional; the two components appeared to be the level of model idealisation and the models encouragement of natural beauty. Combining the two dimensions produced a Cronbach's alpha of .78. The mean scores suggested the manipulations were successful, as the idealised model condition was perceived as more idealised (mean = 5.49) than the non-idealised condition (mean = 4.59). In addition, an independent samples t-test indicated there was a significant difference between the conditions ($t = 3.49, p < .05$).

4.7.2.3 *Manipulation Check for Message Frames*

PCA factor analysis suggested the removal of four items in the message framing measure due to low commonality and cross-loading. The two remaining items loaded uni-dimensionally

with high commonality scores and represented the extent to which the message contained an undesired reference, but was reverse coded so that higher numbers indicated less of an undesired reference. The reliability testing showed a Cronbach's alpha of .68. Participants who viewed the undesired reference rated the message as containing more negatively (mean = 2.92) than those in the desired reference condition (mean = 3.66). An independent t-test revealed a significant difference between the two message framing conditions ($t = 3.16, p < .05$).

4.7.3 REDEVELOPMENT OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

4.7.3.1 *Redevelopment of Priming Manipulation Check*

The manipulation check for the priming condition performed particularly poorly in the pre-test. In order to remedy this, a new manipulation check was developed with items based on Markus and Nurius's (1986) description of a feared self and a hoped for self. This new manipulation check required participants to code their own description of their salient possible self on a seven-point semantic differential scale with a variety of anchors (e.g. bad/good, positive/negative, unattractive/attractive), see Table 4-15. In addition, because this scale was untested prior to the final study, participants written descriptions of their selves were available to be used for coding if necessary, consistent with the approach of Sobh (2011).

<i>Coding</i>	<i>Semantic Differential Items</i>
	<i>* = reverse scaled item</i>
<i>P_MC.1_1</i>	Positive/Negative*
<i>P_MC.1_2</i>	Bad/Good
<i>P_MC.1_3</i>	Desirable/Undesirable*
<i>P_MC.1_4</i>	Unattractive/Attractive
<i>P_MC.1_5</i>	Better than me/Worse than me*

Table 4-15: Revised Scale Items for Priming

4.7.3.2 *Addition of Attention Checks*

For the final study attention checks were also included to ensure the Mechanical Turk workers were reading every question and the data was of high quality. Two manipulation checks were included. In the message framing screen participants were asked:

If you are reading this please select strongly disagree

Later in the Internalisation section participants were asked:

If you are reading this please select strongly agree

4.8 FINAL EXPERIMENT

4.8.1 EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURE

4.8.1.1 *Recruitment of Respondents*

Participants for the final survey were recruited via Amazon's Mechanical Turk survey panel. This panel consists of North American citizens whose identities have been verified by social security details. Qualifiers for the study remained the same as pre-studies and the pre-test, females between the ages of eighteen and thirty-five. A copy of the Mechanical Turk HIT is available in Appendix 8.8.1.

Data was collected on Friday the 19th of December. Approximately 578 participants opened the survey; however only 513 participants completed the survey.

4.8.1.2 *Ethical Considerations*

This research upheld the guidelines prescribed by the University of Canterbury Human Ethics Committee. This research was reviewed and approved this committee, see Appendix 8.8.2. The ethical code outlines guidelines in regards to at-risk groups, informed consent, unnecessary deception, minimisation of risk and meeting obligations under the Treaty of Waitangi. In order to comply with these standards each of the testing phases (interviews, pre-studies, pre-test and experiment) were pre-empted with a different Information Sheet for each study (see Appendices 8.3.1, 8.4.2, 8.5.2, 8.7.2 and 8.8.3). These information sheets gave a basic description of the project but did not fully inform participants of the purpose of the study to ensure the responses were not influenced by this knowledge. Participants were reminded their responses were anonymous. Any personal details, including the details the final study participants provided to register to Mechanical Turk did not accompany the data. After participants were presented with the full information sheet, informed consent was gained from each participant before commencing the questionnaires.

After completing the study participants partaking in the pre-study and pre-testing phases were given a debrief relevant to the questions they were asked (Appendices 8.3.6, 8.4.6, 8.5.6 and 8.7.18) and the final study participants were provided with a full written debrief, which is available in Appendix 8.8.18.

4.8.2 QUALITY CONTROL

Mechanical Turk workers were remunerated for appropriate completion of the survey with \$2.50USD. However, Mechanical Turk has the ability to withhold payment, allowing substandard participants to be removed and not remunerated. In addition, several mechanisms were put in place to ensure the responses were of high quality. Participants who selected no to the initial demographic qualifiers question were thanked for their interest and exited from the survey. However, to further minimise deception, gender and age demographic questions were also placed in the latter section of the survey. Participants who indicated in these later questions that they were male or not 18-35 years were excluded from payment.

Furthermore, any participants who failed both attention checks were removed and not paid. The responses of participants who failed one of the two attention checks were individually reviewed by both the researcher and supervisor, and those who showed unusually short survey times or systematic responses were also removed from the dataset.

4.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter provided details regarding the quantitative research methodology employed in this research to test the hypotheses presented in Chapter Three. First, this chapter explained and justified the experimental research design. Following this, the process through which the final study was developed was described in detail. First, interviews with selected experts were completed to assist with the selection and development of the images and message framed used in the cosmetic advertisement. Justifications for each component of this study were made, including for priming, selection of the model, cosmetics brand, cosmetic product, model idealisation and message frames. The process of three pre-studies to ensure the stimuli successfully manipulated the intended possible self saliencies, model idealisation and message frames before a full pre-test was undertaken. The results of this pre-test confirmed that the independent variables were successfully manipulated and that the experimental website was ready. The next chapter provides an overview of the results and analyses of the main experiment data.

5 RESULTS

The aim of this chapter is to present the results of the statistical analyses conducted to test the hypotheses presented in Chapter Three. Results are addressed in six main sections. The first section provides an overview of the sample, including information regarding the exclusion of participants. The second section analyses the dimensionality and reliability of the scales used for each construct. Following this, the effectiveness of the experimental manipulations for goal-orientation, ideal exposure and message framing are examined. The next sections sequentially tests each of the hypotheses proposed in Chapter Three. Next, the paths of conceptual model presented in Chapter Three are tested using the PLS procedure. Finally, the last section presents the results of further analyses for any non-hypothesised relationships.

5.1 SAMPLE SIZE AND COMPOSITION

5.1.1 SAMPLE SIZE

As discussed in the previous chapter, the data collection for the final experiment took place on the 19th of December 2014. The responses were collected over a 24 hour time period.

A total of 578 participants opened the survey, all of which gave their consent after reading the Information Sheet. Only one participant identified themselves as not fitting the demographic qualifiers, female aged between eighteen and thirty-five, and they were thanked for their interest and excluded from the study. Sixty-three participants failed to complete the questionnaire for unknown reasons. Most of the withdrawals occurred during the first priming task which required a written response. In total, 513 completed responses were received.

Before commencing the statistical analyses, the data was screened to ensure the responses were of high quality. There were nine I.P. addresses from which two participants completed their survey, and each of these participant pairs were compared to ensure variation in their responses which would indicate different individuals completing the questionnaire in the same household. None of these same I.P. address pairs were deemed suspicious and all were retained. Five participants indicated their gender was male in the demographics section, and

each of these individuals were contacted by an Account Manager at Mechanical Turk Data, a research firm based in the United States. One of the participants of concern responded with satisfactory information to disregard her male gender response as a mistake, but the other four respondents were excluded. No participants reported being aged under eighteen or over thirty-five.

Two participants had unusually brief viewing times (< 15 seconds) for the priming activity and were removed to ensure the priming had been effective. A further eleven participants were removed based on their viewing times for the advertisement, the timing either failed to record or less than 4.3 seconds (1dp). A total of twenty respondents failed either or both of the attention checks which were explained in Chapter Four, their responses were excluded from the study. Finally, nineteen participants reported they had not used cosmetic products in the last three months, these participants were also excluded.

Following this process, the analysis sample consisted of 457 participants. In order to obtain the required equal sample size per condition needed satisfy assumptions of specific statistical techniques, such as ANCOVA, 37 cases were randomly deleted. The final sample consisted of 35 responses per manipulated condition, a total of 420 individual respondents.

5.1.2 SAMPLE COMPOSITION

The socio-demographic characteristics of the sample were analysed and the results are presented in Table 5-1. The age distribution shows the majority of the sample, 66.1% are aged between 24 and 32. Furthermore, 50.7% of the sample had completed tertiary education, while 9.0% of the total sample had completed postgraduate qualifications. As shown by Table 5-1, 57.6% of participants were working full time and 83.8% perceived they were in either the lower or middle third of the populations' income. 38.1% of participants were single and a further 31.0% were married. 69.0% of participants were not financially responsible for any children. Finally, 96.7% participants reported they had seen advertising for cosmetic products in the last three months.

Chapter 5 – RESULTS

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Category</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
<i>Age</i>	18 to 20	3.8
	21 to 23	12.6
	24 to 26	21.4
	27 to 29	21.4
	30 to 32	23.3
	33 to 35	17.4
<i>Education</i>	Grammar School	.2
	High School or equivalent	11.2
	Vocational/Technical School (2 year)	5.5
	Some College / University	32.4
	College / University Graduate	41.7
	Master's Degree (MS)	8.3
	Doctoral Degree (PhD)	.5
<i>Employment</i>	Professional Degree (MD, JD, etc.)	.2
	Student	13.6
	Full Time Working	57.6
	Part Time Working	14.0
	Unemployed	14.8
<i>Perceived Income</i>	Lower third	42.6
	Middle third	41.2
	Upper third	5.2
	Unsure	4.5
<i>Marital Status</i>	Rather not say	6.4
	Divorced	2.1
	Living with my partner	17.1
	Married	31.0
	Separated	.7
	Single	38.1
	Widowed	.2
<i>Children (financially responsible)</i>	In a relationship but not living together	10.7
	No	69.0
	Yes, 1 child	14.0
	Yes, 2 children	11.7
	Yes, 3 children	4.0
<i>Seen Cosmetic Advertising (last 3 months)</i>	Yes, 4 or more children	1.2
	Yes	96.7
	No	1.9
	Unsure	1.4

Table 5-1: Demographic Sample Composition

5.2 SCALE STRUCTURE AND RELIABILITY

Following the socio-demographic analysis of the data, the dimensionality and reliability (internal consistency) of the scales was tested using Principle Components Analysis and the Cronbach's alpha procedure (Cronbach, 1951), respectively. All scales were then examined for non-normality and contamination from outliers using tests for skewness and kurtosis.

5.2.1 SCALE STRUCTURE

Principle Component Analysis (PCA) with Varimax rotation was used to assess the underlying dimensionality of the scales used in this research. For these analyses, items were deemed as cross-loading if the item had a loading score of .5 or more on two or more factors.

5.2.1.1 *Independent Measures*

Possible Selves Priming

The PCA revealed that all five items had high communality scores ($>.8$) and loaded onto one factor. The five-item scale explained 94.19% of the variance.

Model Idealisation

Analysis of the four items pertaining to the model in the advertisement had communality scores between .53 and .67. Despite loading onto one factor (unlike the pre-testing), these four items explained 58.21% of the variance. Although this variance is lower than the traditional threshold of 60%, in exploratory research a lower variance can be acceptable (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). Therefore, all four items were kept to test their performance under the Cronbach's alpha procedure in the following section.

Message Frame

The six items which assessed the message frame initially produced two factors. Cross loading resulted in the removal of two items (MF_MC3_1 and MF_MC3_4). Following this adjustment, communality scores for the remaining items were above .7 and the two factor solution explained 49.36% and 30.55% of the variance respectively. Items MF_MC_2 and MF_MC_6 represented a factor hereby referred to as 'Undesired' while items MF_MC_3 and MF_MC_5 represented 'Desired'.

5.2.1.2 *Dependant Measures*

Purchase Intention

The PCA revealed that all three items had high communality scores ($>.7$) and loaded on to one factor. Furthermore, the three-item scale explained 86.68% of the variance.

Attitude toward the Ad

This measure had particularly high communality scores ($>.8$) for all four items and the single factor explained 87.84% of the variance.

5.2.1.3 *Covariate Measures*

Body Image

The PCA of the six items representing body image loaded onto two factors, rather than three which emerged in the pre-test phase. However, after consecutive tests resulting in the removal of two factors (BI.1_1 and BI.1_2) due to low communality scores, two distinctive factors remained. The four remaining items had good communality scores ($>.7$). The rotated component matrix loaded two components, which represented the ‘sexual confidence’ and ‘appearance fixation’ components of an individual’s body image, which explained 55.79% and 27.65% of the variance respectively.

Self-esteem

The PCA for the ten original items for Self-esteem revealed lower communality scores for four items in consecutive tests, and accordingly these variables were removed (SE.1_8, SE.1_4, SE.1_1, SE.1_2). The remaining six items possessed high communality scores ($>.7$) and loaded onto a single factor which explained 79.19% of the variance.

Cosmetic Usage

The cosmetic usage measure revealed mixed loadings which resulted in the removal of items not pertaining to eye makeup (CU.1_1 and CU.1_5). The remaining three items, mascara, eyeliner and eye shadow have good communality scores ($>.7$) and explained 75.92% of the variance. Following the PCA, this item has been renamed ‘eye makeup use’ to better reflect the remaining items.

Situational Cosmetic Use

Due to the nature of the cosmetic usage scale, this measure was not appropriate for factor analysis as the scale measures intentionally different situations. Therefore, this scale is further explored in the following section.

Facial Image

As suspected, the PCA revealed the facial image scale had low communality scores and mixed factor loadings. In order to employ this scale in the current research (which is concerned with mascara use and therefore primarily eyes), all items not relating to eyes or overall face were eliminated. (SS.1_2, SS.1_3, SS.1_4, SS.1_5, as well as SO.2_2, SO.2_3, SO.2_4, SO.2_5). The satisfaction specific measures loaded onto one factor while the satisfaction overall items another. Removing the satisfaction overall factors (SO.2_1 and SO.2_6) left two remaining items which had communality scores greater than .7 and explained 72.57% of the variance.

Internalisation

The eight items measuring internalisation had high communality scores ($>.7$) and loaded on to one factor which explained 80.29% of the variance.

Social Comparison to Models

Originally a seven item scale, the PCA suggested the removal of four items one-by-one (SC.1_5, SC.1_3, SC.1_2, SC.1_7). The remaining three items had communality scores greater than .6 and loaded on to one factor which explained 78.36% of the variance.

5.2.2 SCALE RELIABILITY

Subsequent to PCA, the scales used for this study were tested for internal consistency (reliability) using Cronbach's alpha procedure. No items were removed though this procedure. Table 5-2 shows the Cronbach's alpha procedure revealed all scales had an acceptable level of reliability ($\alpha >.7$), with only a few exceptions. Both Message Frame (total of both factors) and the Desired factor produced a reliability score less than .7. Therefore, the Undesired factor is used throughout this research to represent the measure of Message Frame. The only other measure which produced a Cronbach alpha below .7 was the facial image measure. Consequently, some caution should be exercised when interpreting any analysis related to this variable.

<i>Scale</i>	<i>Cronbach's Alpha</i>
Possible Selves Priming	.98
Model Idealisation	.75
Message Frame	.65
Undesired	.82
Desired	.64
Purchase Intention	.92
Attitude toward the Ad	.95
Body Image	.73
Sexual Confidence	.88
Appearance Fixation	.70
Self-esteem	.95
Eye makeup use	.84
Facial Image	.62
Internalisation	.97
Social Comparison	.86

Table 5-2: Cronbach Alpha Reliability Coefficients for Scale Variables

5.2.3 SITUATIONAL COSMETIC USE

This measure was included as an indicator for intensity of cosmetic use. Due to the nature of the items (see Chapter Four), it was not appropriate to perform the PCA on this measure. Instead, the means of each item are reported here in Table 5-3. The mean scores for each situation was in the expected direction, with a night out and a date producing higher means, indicating higher use of cosmetics, while exercising and spending the day at home produced significantly lower mean scores, revealing much less cosmetic use in these situations.

<i>Descriptive Statistics</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
<i>Night out (with m and f)</i>	5.28	0.90
<i>Shopping (with f friends)</i>	4.32	1.02
<i>Exercising</i>	1.96	1.22
<i>Spending the day at home</i>	1.90	1.27
<i>On a date</i>	5.50	0.79

Table 5-3: Descriptive Statistics for Situational Cosmetic Use

5.2.4 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

In order to produce the descriptive statistics for each measure, multiple analyses to calculate the means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtoses, were run and the results are presented in Table 5-4.

<i>Scale</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Skewness</i>	<i>Kurtosis</i>
<u>Independent Measures</u>				
Perception of Possible Self	4.17	2.42	-.10	-1.77
Perception of Model Idealisation	5.12	1.11	-.46	.27
Perception of Message Frame	3.91	1.58	.08	-.88
<u>Dependant Measures</u>				
Purchase Intention	4.66	1.66	-.46	-.67
Attitude toward the Ad	5.00	1.51	-.73	.08
<u>Covariates</u>				
Body Image				
Sexual Confidence	4.44	1.60	-.58	-.61
Appearance Fixation	4.93	1.28	-.52	-.35
Self-esteem	5.07	1.55	-.72	-.42
Eye Makeup Use	4.30	1.64	-.10	-.93
Situational Cosmetic Use	3.79	.62	.52	1.32
Facial Image	5.33	1.05	-1.17	2.16
Internalisation	4.43	1.62	-.32	-.77
Social Comparison	3.31	1.48	.44	-.54

Table 5-4: Descriptive Statistics for Total Scale Variables

Table 5-4 indicates all measures were approximately normally distributed; however, facial image measure presented with a slight negative skew which suggested participants were relatively satisfied with their eyes and facial appearance.

Histograms with normal curves for all scales are provided in Appendix 8.9 and a correlation matrix for these measures is presented in Table 5-5.

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	<i>PSP</i>	<i>MI</i>	<i>MF</i>	<i>PI</i>	<i>AA</i>	<i>BI-SC</i>	<i>BI-AF</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>EM</i>	<i>SCU</i>	<i>FI</i>	<i>INT</i>	<i>SC</i>
<i>Possible Selves Priming (PSP)</i>		-.004	.076	.118*	.125*	.043	.003	.095	.039	.034	.066	-.039	-.022
<i>Model Idealisation (MI)</i>			-.389**	-.045	-.057	-.056	.010	-.116	-.078	.081	-.092	.152*	.167**
<i>Message Frame (MF)</i>				.177**	.239**	.101*	.056	.156**	.116**	.014	.107*	-.137**	-.193**
<i>Purchase Intention (PI)</i>					.703**	.165**	.282**	.149**	.348**	.221**	.100*	.114*	.126**
<i>Attitude towards Ad (AA)</i>						.84	.128**	.105*	.187**	.126**	.083	.075	.075
<i>Body Image (SC)</i>							.329**	.553**	.160**	.158**	.505**	-.197**	-.174**
<i>Body Image (AF)</i>								.110*	.391**	.179**	.106*	.256**	.231**
<i>Self-esteem (SE)</i>									.143**	.038	.533**	-.302**	-.326**
<i>Eye Makeup Use (EM)</i>										.289**	.170**	.171**	.161**
<i>Situational Cosmetic Use (SCU)</i>											-.013	.156**	.153**
<i>Facial Image (FI)</i>												-.239**	-.230**
<i>Internalisation (INT)</i>													.708**
<i>Social Comparison (SC)</i>													

Table 5-5: Correlation Matrix for Total Scale Variables

* p<.05, ** p<.01

5.3 MANIPULATION CHECKS

Similar to the pre-testing procedure, the scales measuring perception of the Possible Self, Model Idealisation and Message Framing were used as manipulation checks for this main experiment to ensure the conditions were successfully manipulated. Tables 5-6, 5-7 and 5-8 present the mean scores of each of the manipulation check items for both the pre-test and the main experiment. These tables also present the total scale mean and the Cronbach's alpha.

<i>Coding</i>	<i>Semantic Differential Items</i>	Pre-test		Main Experiment	
		<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
<i>P_MC.1_1</i>	Positive/Negative*	Scale not pre-tested		4.23	2.57
<i>P_MC.1_2</i>	Bad/Good			4.31	2.50
<i>P_MC.1_3</i>	Desirable/Undesirable*			4.13	2.60
<i>P_MC.1_4</i>	Unattractive/Attractive			4.20	2.58
<i>P_MC.1_5</i>	Better than me/Worse than me*			3.96	2.22
<i>Total Scale</i>				4.17	2.42
<i>Cronbach's Alpha</i>				.98	

Table 5-6: Perceived Possible Self Mean Scores

<i>Coding</i>	<i>Semantic Differential Items</i>	Pre-test		Main Experiment	
		<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
<i>MI_MC1_1</i>	Less idealized than other models/More idealized than other models	4.51	1.53	4.67	1.33
<i>MI_MC1_2</i>	Does not encourage covering your flaws/Encourages covering your flaws	5.16	1.84	5.38	1.50
<i>MI_MC1_3</i>	Non-idealized/Idealized	5.55	1.49	5.55	1.35
<i>MI_MC1_4</i>	Does not encourage unrealistic beauty/encourages unrealistic beauty	5.09	1.87	4.86	1.64
<i>Total Scale</i>		5.08	1.31	5.12	1.11
<i>Cronbach's Alpha</i>		.78		.75	

Table 5-7: Perceived Model Idealisation

<i>Coding</i>	<i>Likert Items</i>	Pre-test		Main Experiment	
		<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
<i>MF_MC3_1</i>	The phrase is negative.*	4.01	1.61	-	-
<i>MF_MC3_2</i>	The phrase makes people fear looking inferior to others.*	3.38	1.74	4.13	1.74
<i>MF_MC3_3</i>	The phrase makes me think about what I would like to look like.	4.66	1.58	-	-
<i>MF_MC3_4</i>	The phrase is positive.	3.81	1.56	-	-
<i>MF_MC3_5</i>	The phrase encourages people to look their best.	4.87	1.56	-	-
<i>MF_MC3_6</i>	The phrase makes people think about their flaws.*	3.23	1.71	3.69	1.69
<i>Total Mean</i>		3.99	1.04	3.91	1.58
<i>Cronbach's Alpha</i>		.71		.82	

Table 5-8: Perceived Regulatory Reference Message Framing

To examine the effectiveness of the experimental conditions, three independent sample t-tests were conducted. Using the total scale means for each manipulation, the t-tests were used to determine whether there were significant ($p < .05$) differences between the means in each of the experimental conditions. It should be noted participants in the No Model condition did not complete a manipulation check for Model Idealisation.

5.3.1 POSSIBLE SELVES PRIMING

The independent sample t-test revealed there was a significant difference ($t = 47.66, p < .01$) between the mean scores of Hoped-for Self (mean = 6.39) and Feared Self (mean = 1.94). Based on these results, the manipulations for these conditions were successful.

5.3.2 MODEL IDEALISATION

For the advertisement model, the level of idealisation was successfully manipulated as the independent sample t-test revealed a significant difference ($t = 4.41, p < .01$) between the mean scores of the Idealised Model condition (mean = 5.40) and the Non-Idealised condition (mean = 4.83), which means the manipulations were successful. However, the mean for the Non-idealised Model condition was not below 4, which suggests rather than being “non-idealised” this condition represents a “less idealised” model. This finding does reflect the notion that both models are still ‘attractive’ but the “less idealised” model has visible, normal ‘flaws’. In order to clarify what is represented by these conditions they are renamed from this point onwards throughout this thesis as “More Idealised Model” and “Less Idealised Model”.

5.3.3 MESSAGE FRAMING

The message framing condition was also successfully manipulated, the independent samples t-test produced a significant difference ($t = 5.50, p < .01$) between the mean scores of the desired reference (mean = 4.32) and undesired reference (mean = 3.50) conditions.

The final stage in the manipulation checks procedure involved checking the effect of the socio-demographic and covariate variables on the perceived measures of Possible Selves, Model Idealisation and Message Framing. Six ANCOVAs (two for each variable) were conducted, where the grouping variables for Possible Selves, Model Idealisation and Message Framing were entered as fixed factors. As covariate measures, in consecutive tests either socio-demographic variables (Education, Age, Marital Status, Children, Employment, Perceived Income and recall of seeing a cosmetic Advertisement) or the covariate variables were entered. The perception measures for Possible Selves, Model Idealisation and Message Framing served as respective dependant variables. Results of these analyses are presented in Table 5-9 and Table 5-10.

	Possible Selves			Model Idealisation			Message Framing		
Variable	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig</i>	η_p^2	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig</i>	η_p^2	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig</i>	η_p^2
<i>Education</i>	3.08	.08	.01	4.30	.04	.02	3.44	.06	.01
<i>Age</i>	.14	.71	.00	0.41	.52	.00	1.13	.29	.00
<i>Marital Status</i>	.04	.85	.00	1.11	.29	.00	0.18	.67	.00
<i>Children</i>	.29	.60	.00	0.90	.34	.00	0.02	.90	.00
<i>Employment</i>	3.38	.07	.01	0.57	.45	.00	0.01	.91	.00
<i>Income</i>	.00	.98	.00	2.22	.14	.01	7.88	.01	.02
<i>Advertisement</i>	.06	.81	.00	0.00	.99	.00	1.56	.21	.00

Table 5-9: Effects of Socio-demographics on Perceived Measures

With regard to Table 5-9, Perception of Possible Selves, Model Idealisation and Message Framing was influenced by Education ($F = 3.08, p < .1, F = 4.30, p < .05, F = 3.44, p < .1$, respectively), however the partial Eta-squared statistics were all very small ($\eta_p^2 = .01, \eta_p^2 = .02, \eta_p^2 = .01$, respectively) indicating a small effect. Employment also had an effect on Possible Selves ($F = 3.38, p < .1$) but again this effect was small ($\eta_p^2 = .01$). Message Framing perception was influenced by Income ($F = 7.88, p < .05$) but the partial Eta-squared statistic was very small ($\eta_p^2 = .02$). No other demographics had a significant influence on the manipulation checks.

	Possible Selves			Model Idealisation			Message Framing		
Variable	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig</i>	η_p^2	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig</i>	η_p^2	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig</i>	η_p^2
<i>Body Image (SC)</i>	0.00	.95	.00	0.03	.85	.00	0.52	.47	.00
<i>Body Image (AF)</i>	1.55	.21	.00	0.35	.56	.00	0.93	.33	.00
<i>Self-esteem</i>	0.11	.74	.00	0.07	.79	.00	2.13	.15	.01
<i>Eye Makeup Use</i>	0.95	.33	.00	2.63	.11	.01	5.09	.02	.01
<i>Situational Use</i>	0.11	.74	.00	3.81	.05	.01	0.04	.84	.00
<i>Facial Image</i>	3.08	.08	.01	0.10	.76	.00	0.10	.75	.00
<i>Internalisation</i>	2.57	.11	.01	0.30	.58	.00	0.06	.80	.00
<i>Social Comparison</i>	1.12	.29	.00	3.23	.07	.01	6.28	.01	.02

Table 5-10: Effects of Covariates on Perceived Measures

In regard to Table 5-10, with respect the Message Framing it was found that Eye Makeup Use ($F = 5.09$, $p < .05$) had a small effect ($\eta_p^2 = .01$). Situational Cosmetics Use had a small effect on perception of Model Idealisation ($F = 3.81$, $p < .1$) but the effect was small ($\eta_p^2 = .01$). Facial Image had an effect on Possible Selves ($F = 3.08$, $p < .1$) but this effect was also small ($\eta_p^2 = .01$). Social Comparison to Models had a significant effect on both Model Idealisation and Message Framing ($F = 3.23$, $p < .1$, $F = 6.28$, $p < .05$), however the partial Eta-squared statistics revealed these effect was small ($\eta_p^2 = .01$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$ respectively). Table 5-10 indicates that none of the other covariates have a significant influence on participants' Perception of their Possible Selves, their Perception of the Model Idealisation or their Perception of the Message Frame.

5.4 HYPOTHESES TESTING

5.4.1 HYPOTHESIS ONE

H₁: Participants who have a salient Hoped-for Self goal orientation will have greater Purchase Intention than those with a salient Feared Self goal orientation.

Firstly, the relationship between participants' perception of their possible selves and their intention to purchase is explored. To determine if participants' perception of their salient possible self influenced their purchase intention a regression analysis was conducted. The results of the regression analysis show that a positive perception salient possible self had a positive effect on Purchase Intention ($\beta = .12$, $p < .05$), although the R^2 variable indicates the relationship only explains a small amount of the total variation ($R^2 = .01$).

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Next, in order to test the hypothesised effect of priming Possible Selves, the conditions for the possible selves priming conditions are explored. The mean scores for Purchase Intention for each Possible Selves condition; Hoped-for and Feared are presented in Table 5-11 and depicted in Figure 5-1.

	<i>Condition</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
Purchase Intention	Hoped-for	4.81	1.60
	Feared	4.50	1.71

Table 5-11: Purchase Intention for Possible Selves

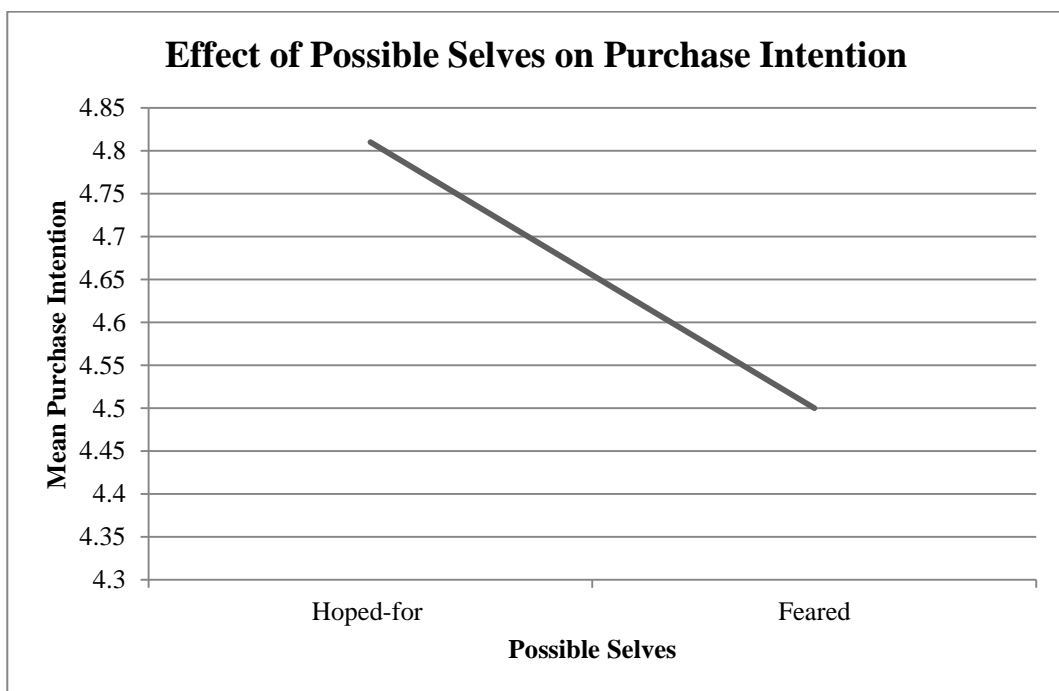


Figure 5-1: Means Plot for Effect of Possible Selves on Purchase Intention

To examine the effects of the two Possible Selves priming conditions; Hoped-for and Feared on Purchase Intention an ANCOVA analysis was conducted, where Possible Selves was entered as an independent variable, Purchase Intention was the dependant variable, and the covariates were considered in the analysis. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 5-12 below.

Purchase Intention			
Variable	F	Sig	η_p^2
<i>Body Image (SC)</i>	.31	.58	.00
<i>Body Image (AF)</i>	7.02	.01	.02
<i>Self-esteem</i>	3.37	.07	.01
<i>Eye Makeup Use</i>	21.29	.00	.05
<i>Situational Use</i>	4.48	.04	.01
<i>Facial Image</i>	.11	.74	.00
<i>Internalisation</i>	.04	.85	.00
<i>Social Comparison</i>	1.01	.32	.00
<i>Possible Selves</i>	2.88	.09	.01

Table 5-12: ANCOVA Analysis for Effect of Possible Selves on Purchase Intention

As presented in Table 5-12, several covariates had an effect on Purchase Intention. Body Image (Appearance Fixation) ($F = 7.02, p < .05, \eta_p^2 = .02$), Self-esteem ($F = 3.37, p < .1, \eta_p^2 = .01$), Eye Makeup Use ($F = 21.29, p < .01, \eta_p^2 = .05$) and Situational Cosmetics Use ($F = 4.48, p < .05, \eta_p^2 = .01$).

Furthermore, the results indicate the main effects of Possible Selves priming were significant ($F = 2.88, p < .1, \eta_p^2 = .01$). These results indicate *Hypothesis One was supported*.

5.4.2 HYPOTHESIS TWO

H₂. Participants who view an Idealised Model advertisement will experience lower Body/Facial Image than those participants who view Non-idealised Model or No Model advertisements.

Factor analysis identified two separate factors for Body Image (Sexual Confidence and Appearance Fixation) and close examination of these factors and their measure items suggest Hypothesis Two could be rewritten differently. Body Image (Sexual Confidence) is measured by “I like the way I look without my clothes” and “My body is sexually appealing”, and although the literature on body ideals suggests a negative relationship, it is possible participants in the current research may be less influenced by a non-sexual image such as the advertisement used in this study. Therefore, this variable is excluded from a main effect and examined as a covariate instead. However, Body Image (Appearance Fixation) is measured by “It is important that I always look good” and “I check my appearance in the mirror whenever I can”, thoughts and behaviours that would be expected to *increase* if influenced by an idealised image, therefore higher means for the More Idealised Model condition and a *positive* relationship

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between perception of idealisation and Body Image (Appearance Fixation) would be expected. Therefore, although not originally hypothesised, two additional hypotheses are posited:

H_{2a}: Participants who view a More Idealised Model advertisement will experience higher Body Image (Appearance Fixation) than participants who view Less Idealised Model or No Model advertisements.

The Facial Image scale performed poorly and the remaining items measure satisfaction with eyes and overall face, which, as per Hypothesis Two would be expected to have a negative relationship with perceived model idealisation.

H_{2b}: Participants who view a More Idealised Model advertisement will experience lower Facial Image than participants who view Less Idealised Model or No Model advertisements.

Firstly, the relationship between participants' perception of model idealisation and the outcome on their Body/Facial Image is explored. Two separate regression analyses were required to test the relationships between Body Image (Appearance Fixation) and Facial Image. This regression analysis will exclude the participants who viewed the No Model advertisement image as they did not complete a model idealisation scale.

Firstly, the Body Image (Appearance Fixation) variable was entered as a dependant variable, while Perceived Model Idealisation was entered as the independent variable. This analysis produced no significant result for Appearance Fixation ($R^2 = -.00$, $\beta = .00$, $p > .05$). Furthermore, Facial Image as a dependant variable yielded no significant results either ($R^2 = .00$, $\beta = .07$, $p > .05$).

Next, in order to understand the effect of model idealisation and the body image construct, the manipulation conditions are examined. Table 5-13 presents the mean and standard deviation for each variable, for each of the three image conditions (More Idealised Model, Less Idealised Model, and No Model). The means for Body Image (Appearance Fixation) and Facial Image are also presented in a means plot (Figure 5-2).

	<i>Condition</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
Body Image (Appearance Fixation)	More Idealised Model	5.10	1.24
	Less Idealised Model	4.89	1.23
	No Model	4.79	1.36
Facial Image	More Idealised Model	5.33	1.18
	Less Idealised Model	5.40	0.93
	No Model	5.27	1.03

Table 5-13: Mean Scores for Body and Facial Image for Model Idealisation Conditions

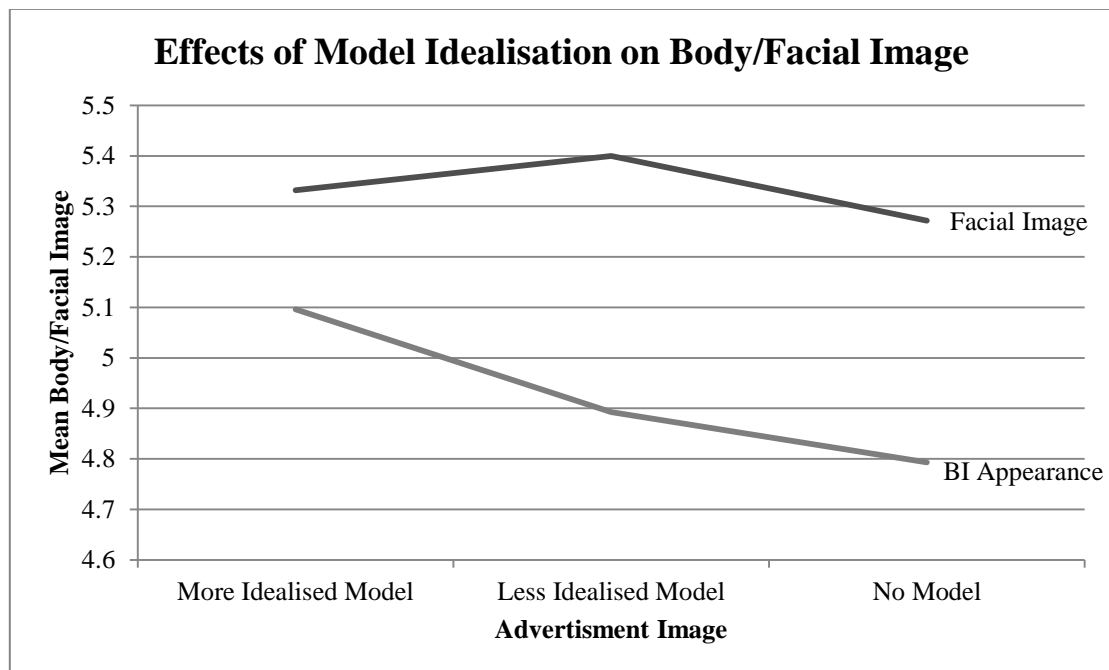


Figure 5-2: Means Plot for Effect of Model Idealisation on Body/Facial Image

Table 5-13 shows the means for Body Image (Appearance Fixation) and for Facial Image. Firstly, the resulting means of the Body Image measure conflict with the original Hypothesis Two. However, as discussed above, Hypothesis Two was adjusted to predict higher Appearance Fixation after viewing the More Idealised Model. Consistent with Hypothesis Two(a), the More Idealised Model condition had the highest mean score (mean = 5.10), compared to the Less Idealised Model (mean = 4.89) and in addition, the mean score for the No Model condition (mean = 4.79) was the lowest, as shown by Table 5-13 and Figure 5-2. This finding is supportive of Hypothesis Two(a).

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The Facial Image variable, which measures satisfaction, found the mean score in the Less Idealised condition (mean = 5.40) was greater than the mean score for the More Idealised Model condition (mean = 5.33) and the No Model condition (mean = 5.27). These statistics contrast with Hypothesis Two(b) and instead suggest the Less Idealised condition *increases* Facial Image.

A MANCOVA analysis was considered for this analysis, however, as discussed above, and demonstrated by Figure 5-2, Body Image (Appearance Fixation) and Facial Image act differently across the conditions, therefore two ANCOVA analyses were completed; the results of which are presented in Table 5-14.

Covariates	Dependant Variable					
	Body Image (Appearance Fixation)			Facial Image		
	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig</i>	η_p^2	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig</i>	η_p^2
<i>Body Image (SC)</i>	45.99	.00	.10	48.53	.00	.11
<i>Body Image (AF)</i>	-	-	-	.89	.35	.00
<i>Self-esteem</i>	.06	.80	.00	38.10	.00	.09
<i>Eye Makeup</i>	42.90	.00	.10	10.85	.00	.03
<i>Situational Use</i>	.01	.93	.00	5.22	.02	.01
<i>Facial Image</i>	.89	.35	.00	-	-	-
<i>Internalisation</i>	10.19	.00	.02	.60	.44	.00
<i>Social Comp</i>	2.98	.09	.01	.80	.37	.00
<i>Model Idealisation</i>	3.42	.03	.02	.24	.79	.00

Table 5-14: ANCOVA Analysis for Effect of Model Idealisation on Body and Facial Image

Table 5-14 displays the test result for the ANCOVA analyses for Body Image (Appearance Fixation) and Facial Image. Body Image (Sexual Confidence) had a significant effect on both Body Image (Appearance Fixation) and Facial Image ($F = 45.99, p < .01, F = 48.53, p < .01$, respectively) and the effect size was considerable in both analyses ($\eta_p^2 = .10, \eta_p^2 = .11$, respectively). Eye Makeup Use had a significant effect on Body Image (Appearance Fixation) ($F = 42.90, p < .01, \eta_p^2 = .10$) and Facial Image ($F = .10.85, p < .01, \eta_p^2 = .03$).

In regard to Body Image (Appearance Fixation) Internalisation ($F = 10.19, p < .01, \eta_p^2 = .02$) had an effect, and so did Social Comparison to Models ($F = 2.98, p < .1, \eta_p^2 = .01$). In regard to Facial Image, Self-esteem had an effect ($F = 38.10, p < .01, \eta_p^2 = .09$). Similarly, Situational Cosmetics Use ($F = 5.22, p < .01, \eta_p^2 = .01$) had an effect in regard to Facial Image.

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These ANCOVA analyses were conducted to determine test the effects of advertising images on body image and facial image, the results revealed there was a significant effect of the advertisement image on Body Image (Appearance Fixation) ($F = 3.42, p < .05$) which is *supports with Hypothesis Two(a)*. However, the mean values for Facial Image ($F = .24, p > .05$) were not significantly affected by the advertising image, in *opposition to Hypothesis Two(b)*.

However, it should be noted the significant results reported for the Body Image (Appearance Fixation) ANCOVA analysis are further explored in a later section.

5.4.3 HYPOTHESIS THREE

H₃: Participants with a lower Body/Facial Image will exhibit greater Purchase Intention.

Again, after examining the factors of Body Image, it is expected for the Appearance factor to act differently from Sexual and Facial Image. Those *high* on the Appearance factor will be more likely to exhibit a purchase intention.

H_{3a}: Participants with a higher Body Image (Appearance Fixation) will exhibit stronger purchase intentions

H_{3b}: Participants with a lower Facial Image will exhibit stronger purchase intentions

To test these new hypotheses, several regression analyses were conducted. Each of the variables pertaining to body image and facial image were tested separately to establish their individual predictive value for purchase intention. Table 5-15 presents these values.

<i>Purchase Intention</i>	<i>R²</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig</i>
Body Image (AF)	.08	36.24	.00
Facial Image	.01	4.18	.04

Table 5-15: Regression Analysis for Relationship of Body/Facial Image and Purchase Intention

Table 5-15 suggests both Body Image (Appearance Fixation) and Facial Image have *positive* relationships with Purchase Intention. This finding contradicts *Hypothesis Three(b)*.

In order to understand if Body Image and Facial Image together improve the predictive value for purchase intention, Body Image (Appearance Fixation), Body Image (Sexual) and Facial Image were entered as independent variables with Purchase Intention entering the model as the dependant variable. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 5-16.

<i>Purchase Intention</i>	<i>Standardised β</i>	<i>Sig</i>
Body Image (AF)	.28	.00
Facial Image	.07	.14
<hr/>		
<i>R²</i>	.09	
<i>F</i>	19.29	.00
<i>df</i>	2	

Table 5-16: Combined Regression Analysis for Relationship between Body/Facial Image and Purchase Intention

Table 5-16 shows when Facial Image is entered into the model alongside Body Image (Appearance Fixation), Facial Image no longer has a significant effect on purchase intention ($\beta = .07$ $p > .05$). However, the results of the regression analysis indicate that Body Image (Appearance Fixation) has a positive effect on purchase intention ($\beta = .26$, $p < .01$), although the R^2 variable indicates the relationship only explains a small amount of the total variation ($R^2 = .09$). Although the relationship is relatively small, these results indicate *Hypothesis Three(a) is supported*. However, *Hypothesis Three(b)* which predicted a negative relationship with Facial Images *rejected*.

5.4.4 HYPOTHESIS FOUR

H₄: Participants who view the More Idealised Model advertisement will have a more positive Attitude toward the Ad, compared to those who view a Less Idealised Model or No Model advertisement.

In order to fully explore this hypothesis, first a regression analysis needs to be conducted. This analysis requires Perceived Model Idealisation to be entered as the independent variable, which excludes the participants from the No Model condition, who did not complete this measure. The results of the regression analysis show no relationship between Perceived Model Idealisation and Attitude toward the Ad ($\beta = -.06$, $p > .05$). These results do not indicate support for Hypothesis Four. However, an ANCOVA analysis is required to test for differences between the manipulated conditions.

Next, the manipulation conditions for model idealisation are explored. Table 5-17 presents the mean and standard deviation for Attitude toward the Ad, for each of the three image conditions (More Idealised Model, Less Idealised Model, and No Model). As shown in Table 5-17 the mean Attitude toward the Ad for the no model condition (mean = 5.21) is higher than

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both the More Idealised model condition (mean = 4.93) and Less Idealised Model condition (mean = 4.84). These means are also presented in a means plot (Figure 5-3).

	<i>Condition</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
Attitude toward Ad	More Idealised Model	4.93	1.62
	Less Idealised Model	4.84	1.52
	No Model	5.21	1.35

Table 5-17: Mean Attitude toward the Ad for Model Idealisation Conditions

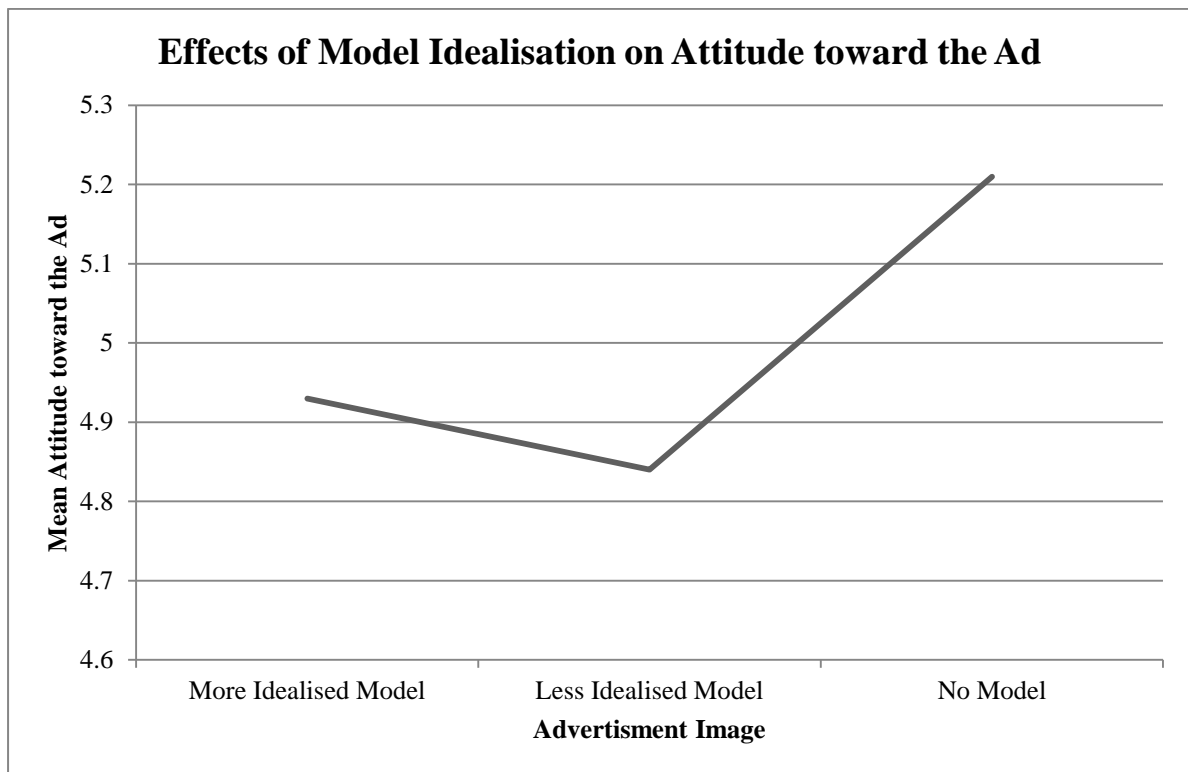


Figure 5-3: Means Plot for Effect of Model Idealisation on Attitude toward the Ad

To explore these results further and to test whether participants who viewed the More Idealised Model image had a significantly different Attitude toward the Ad across the conditions an ANCOVA analysis was run. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 5-18.

Attitude toward the Ad			
Variable	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig</i>	η_p^2
<i>Body Image (SC)</i>	0.03	0.85	0.00
<i>Body Image (AF)</i>	0.76	0.38	0.00
<i>Self-esteem</i>	2.40	0.12	0.01
<i>Eye Makeup Use</i>	6.41	0.01	0.02
<i>Situational Use</i>	0.97	0.33	0.00
<i>Facial Image</i>	0.01	0.90	0.00
<i>Internalisation</i>	0.35	0.55	0.00
<i>Social Comparison</i>	0.13	0.72	0.00
<i>Model Idealisation</i>	2.12	0.12	0.01

Table 5-18: ANCOVA Analysis for the Effect of Model Idealisation on Attitude toward the Ad

The results in Table 5-18 show that the only covariate which impacts Attitude toward the Ad was Eye Makeup Use ($F = 6.41, p < .01, \eta_p^2 = .02$). However, when controlling for all the covariates, the results shows the main effect of Model Idealisation did not significantly affect Attitude towards the Ad ($F = 2.12, p > .05, \eta_p^2 = .01$). *Hypothesis Four is rejected.*

It should be noted, further analysis presented in a later section of this chapter which finds Attitude towards the Ad is significantly more positive when participants were presented with an advertisement without a model, than when they see an advertisement with a model.

5.4.5 HYPOTHESIS FIVE

H₅: Participants who view an advertisement with a Desired Reference message frame will have a more positive Attitude toward the Ad, compared to those who view an Undesired Reference message frame.

A regression analysis was completed to determine whether participants with a positive perception of the message frame also have a better attitude toward the ad overall. The results of the regression analysis show that perception of message positivity had a positive effect on Attitude toward the Ad ($\beta = .24, p < .01$), although the R^2 variable indicates the relationship only explains a relatively small amount of the total variation ($R^2 = .06$).

Next, conditions for the advertising message frame are studied. The mean scores for Attitude towards the Ad for each message framing condition; Desired and Undesired are presented in Table 5-19 and depicted in Figure 5-4.

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	<i>Condition</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
Attitude toward Ad	Desired	5.14	1.36
	Undesired	4.86	1.62

Table 5-19: Mean Attitude toward the Ad for Message Framing Conditions

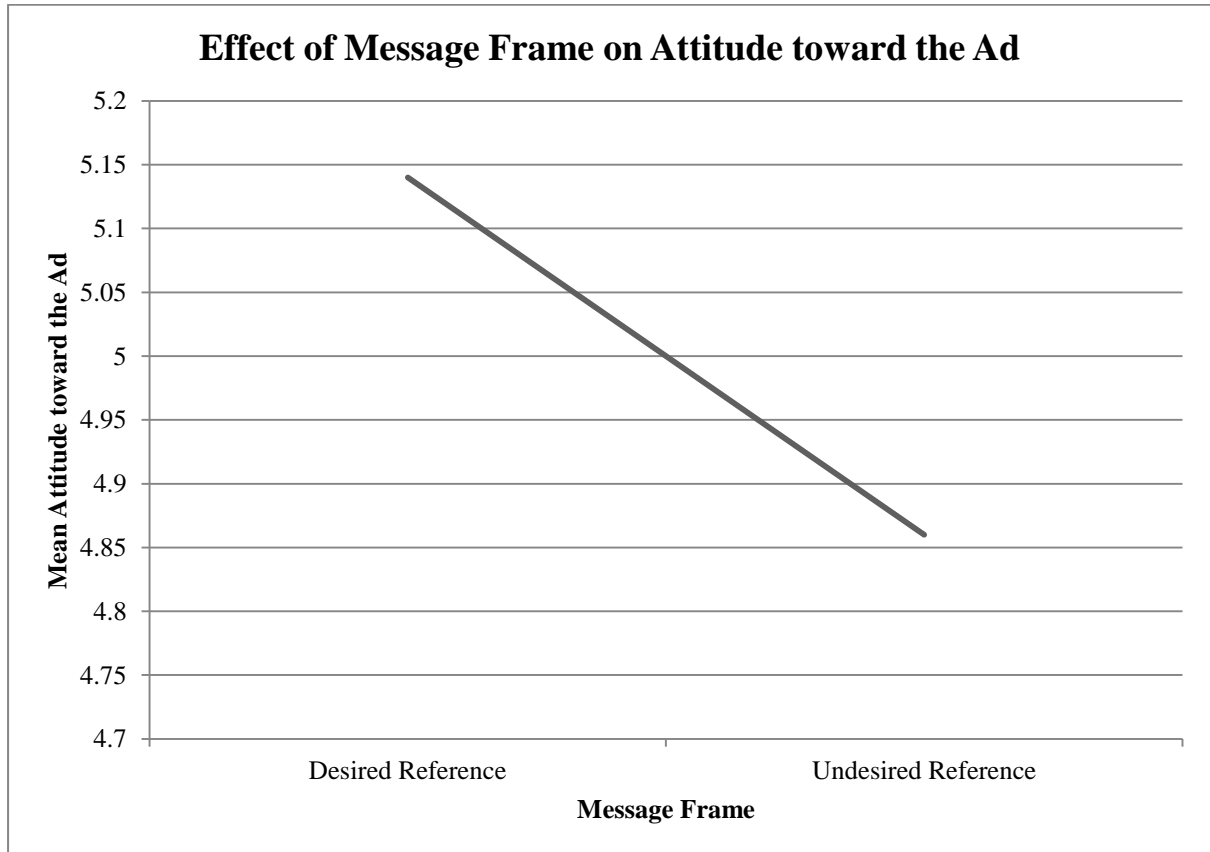


Figure 5-4: Means Plot for Effect of Message Frame on Attitude toward the Ad

As depicted in Table 5-19, the mean Attitude toward the Ad is greater for the Desired condition (mean = 5.14) compared to the Undesired condition (mean = 4.82), this result is consistent with Hypothesis Five. In order to test whether Attitude toward the Advertisement is significantly different depending on the message frame (desired outcome versus undesired outcome) an ANCOVA analysis was conducted. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 5-20.

Attitude toward the Ad			
Variable	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig</i>	η_p^2
<i>Body Image (SC)</i>	.02	.89	.00
<i>Body Image (AF)</i>	.64	.43	.00
<i>Self-esteem</i>	2.77	.10	.01
<i>Eye Makeup Use</i>	6.36	.01	.02
<i>Situational Use</i>	1.20	.28	.00
<i>Facial Image</i>	.08	.78	.00
<i>Internalisation</i>	.39	.53	.00
<i>Social Comparison</i>	.22	.64	.00
<i>Message Frame</i>	4.32	.04	.01

Table 5-20: ANCOVA Analysis for Effect of Message Frame on Attitude toward the Ad

Table 5-20 demonstrates that the only covariate which significantly impacted was Eye Makeup Use ($F = 6.36$, $p < .05$) but the effect size was small ($\eta_p^2 = .02$). Furthermore, the results of this analysis show that the effect of the message frame condition were significant ($F = 4.32$, $p < .05$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$). This indicates that the different framing conditions cause variation in the Attitude toward the Ad. Interpreting this result alongside the means presented in Table 5-19 indicates that the participants presented with the Desired Reference message frame have a better Attitude toward the Ad than participants presented with the Undesired Reference message. These results indicate *support for Hypothesis Five*.

5.4.6 HYPOTHESIS SIX

H₆: Attitude toward the Ad will have a positive relationship with Purchase Intention.

This relationship calls for a simple regression analysis. As hypothesised, a positive relationship was found between Attitude to the Ad and Purchase Intention ($\beta = .70$, $p < .01$) which explained a significant amount of the variation ($R^2 = .49$). Thus *Hypothesis Six was supported*.

5.4.7 HYPOTHESES SEVEN AND EIGHT

H₇: Participants with matched goals will have a more positive Attitude toward the Ad than participants with mismatched goals.

H₈: Participants with matched goals will have a greater Purchase Intention than participants with mismatched goals.

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These hypotheses represent the goal compatibility theory and for the current study this suggests participants who are primed with a Hoped-for [Feared] goal orientation and presented with a Desired [Undesired] appeal will experience a goal match-up. Therefore, participants in the Hoped-for: Desired condition and those in the Feared: Undesired condition were coded into a new ‘Matched’ variable, while those in the Feared: Desired condition and the Hoped-for: Undesired condition became a ‘Mismatched’ variable. The means for both Attitude toward the Ad and Purchase Intention for both the Match and Mismatch goals variables are presented below in Table 5-21 and depicted in Figure 5-5.

	<i>Condition</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
Attitude toward Ad	Match	5.02	1.46
	Mismatch	4.98	1.55
Purchase Intention	Match	4.63	1.66
	Mismatch	4.69	1.67

Table 5-21: Mean Attitude toward Ad and Purchase Intention for Match-up Hypothesis

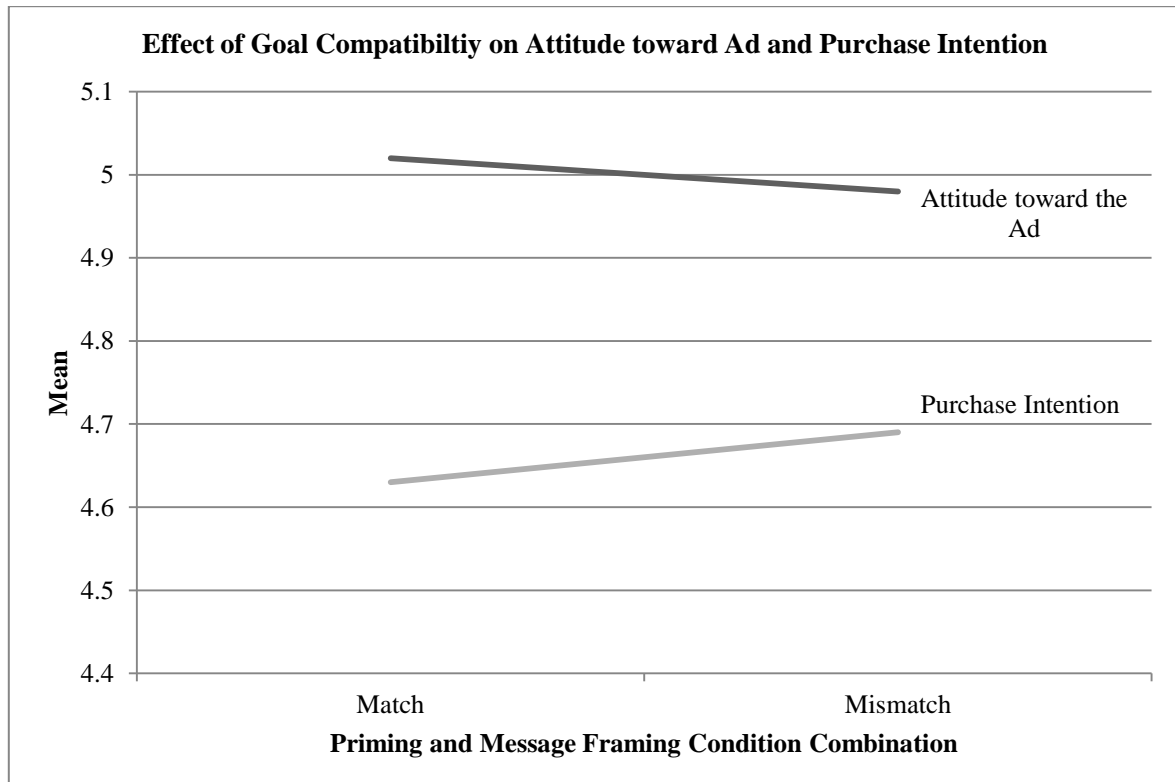


Figure 5-5: Means Plot for Effect of Goal Compatibility on Attitude and Purchase Intention

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In order to establish if there is a significant difference between groups two ANCOVA analyses will be run, one each for Attitude toward the Ad, which pertains to Hypothesis Seven, and Purchase Intention, which represents Hypothesis Eight. The results of these analyses are presented in Table 5-22.

Covariates	Dependant Variable					
	Attitude toward Ad			Purchase Intention		
	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig</i>	η_p^2	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig</i>	η_p^2
<i>Body Image (SC)</i>	.05	.83	.00	.29	.59	.00
<i>Body Image (AF)</i>	.61	.44	.00	6.67	.01	.02
<i>Self-esteem</i>	2.43	.12	.00	3.75	.05	.01
<i>Eye Makeup</i>	6.06	.01	.02	21.94	.00	.05
<i>Situational Use</i>	1.49	.22	.01	4.46	.04	.01
<i>Facial Image</i>	.03	.85	.00	.15	.70	.00
<i>Internalisation</i>	.36	.55	.00	.04	.84	.00
<i>Social Comp</i>	.17	.68	.00	.98	.32	.00
<i>Match-Up</i>	.10	.75	.00	.05	.83	.00

Table 5-22: ANCOVA Analysis for Effect of Match-Up on Attitude toward Ad and Purchase Intention

Table 5-22 indicates several of the covariates have an effect on either Attitude toward the Ad or Purchase Intention. Eye Makeup Use has a significant effect on both Attitude toward the Ad ($F = 6.06, p < .05, \eta_p^2 = .02$) and Purchase Intention ($F = 21.94, p < .01, \eta_p^2 = .05$) but in both cases the effect size remained small. Body Image (Appearance Fixation) ($F = 6.67, p < .05, \eta_p^2 = .02$), Self-esteem ($F = 3.75, p < .1, \eta_p^2 = .01$) and Situational Cosmetic Use ($F = 4.46, p < .05, \eta_p^2 = .01$) all had a small effect on Purchase Intention. Overall, the results of these analyses show the Match-Up of the Possible Selves priming and the Message Framing conditions were not significant for both Attitude toward the Ad ($F = .10, p > .05, \eta_p^2 = .00$) and Purchase Intention ($F = .05, p > .05, \eta_p^2 = .00$). These results mean that both *Hypothesis Seven* and *Hypothesis Eight* are rejected.

Table 5-23 provides a summary of the results presented in this section.

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	Hypotheses	Supported
<i>H₁</i>	<i>Participants who have a salient Hoped-for Self goal orientation will have greater Purchase Intention than those with a salient Feared Self goal orientation.</i>	✓
<i>H_{2a}</i>	<i>Participants who view a More Idealised Model advertisement will experience higher Body Image (Appearance Fixation) than participants who view Less Idealised Model or No Model advertisements.</i>	✓
<i>H_{2b}</i>	<i>Participants who view a More Idealised Model advertisement will experience lower Facial Image than participants who view Less Idealised Model or No Model advertisements.</i>	✗
<i>H_{3a}</i>	<i>Participants with a higher Body Image (Appearance Fixation) will exhibit stronger Purchase Intention.</i>	✓
<i>H_{3b}</i>	<i>Participants with a lower Facial Image will exhibit stronger Purchase Intention.</i>	✗
<i>H₄</i>	<i>Participants who view the More Idealised Model advertisement will have a more positive Attitude toward the Ad, compared to those who view a Less Idealised Model or No Model advertisement.</i>	✗
<i>H₅</i>	<i>Participants who view an advertisement with a Desired Reference message frame will have a more positive Attitude toward the Ad, compared to those who view an Undesired Reference message frame.</i>	✓
<i>H₆</i>	<i>Attitude toward the Ad will have a positive relationship with Purchase Intention.</i>	✓
<i>H₇</i>	<i>Participants with matched goals will have a more positive Attitude toward the Ad than participants with mismatched goals.</i>	✗
<i>H₈</i>	<i>Participants with matched goals will have a greater Purchase Intention than participants with mismatched goals.</i>	✗

Table 5-23: Summary of Hypotheses Support

5.5 PATH ANALYSIS OF THE CONCEPTUAL MODEL

The previous Hypothesis Testing section only evaluated the effects of the independent variables on each dependant variable separately. The next stage of the data analysis was the simultaneously assess the path effects and testing the overall conceptual model using a Partial Least Squares (PLS) approach. This analysis was conducted using the SmartPLS3.0 software. First this section discusses the measurement model to confirm the validity and reliability of the scales. Next, the structural model is tested, which informed the hypotheses discussed in the previous section.

5.5.1 THE MEASUREMENT MODEL

Before proceeding with the path analysis, it is important to check the validity and reliability of the constructs which measure the latent variables used throughout this research (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2013). Because the current research uses reflective indicators, the model in this research is a reflective measurement model, therefore, the convergent validity (average variance extracted), internal consistency (composite reliability), and indicator reliability, discriminant validity are assessed (Hair et al., 2013).

First of all, factors were entered separately as individual constructs and all indicator items (essentially the remaining scale items) were entered for each latent construct. This enabled the convergent validity and internal consistency of each construct to be assessed. Convergent validity is measured by average variance extracted (AVE) and constructs above .5 are acceptable (Hair et al., 2013). Internal consistency is measured using composite reliability (P_c), values, for which constructs which produce a $P_c > .6$ are sufficient (Hair et al., 2013), while those above .9 are considered to have very high internal consistency. The values for each construct are displayed in Table 5-24.

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	<i>AVE</i>	<i>P_c</i>
Attitude toward the Ad	.89	.97
Body Image (AF)	.76	.87
Facial Image	.72	.84
Purchase Intention	.87	.95
Perceived Message Frame	.84	.90
Perceived Model Idealisation	.44	.74
PMI (after two items removed)	.79	.88
Perceived Possible Self	.94	.99

Table 5-24: Composite Reliability and AVE

Table 5-24 displays the AVE and P_c values for the constructs in the hypothesised model. The initial calculation revealed a low convergent validity for the Perceived Model Idealisation construct ($AVE < .5$), therefore, two variables (MI_MC1_2 and MI_MC1_4) were removed based on their low outer loadings to improve the measure. The final measures are satisfactory for all constructs and have a strong convergent validity ($> .7$) and internal consistency ($> .8$).

Next, indicators were examined for their convergent validity, which is “the extent to which a measure correlates positively with alternative measures of the same construct” (Hair et al., 2013, p. 102). Both the convergent validity and the cross loadings for other variables are presented in Table 5-25. Examination revealed that all indicators (in bold) had outer loadings above the .7 threshold for indicator reliability (see Table 5-25), demonstrating that the latent construct explains at least 50% of the indicators variance (Hair et al., 2013).

In addition, it is important to ensure all constructs were distinct from other constructs, which is indicated by the discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2013). The first measure for discriminant validity involves examination of the cross-loading scores for each construct, which are presented alongside the outer loadings in Table 5-25. As seen in Table 5-25 the outer loadings for each construct were all larger than its loadings onto another construct.

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<i>Constructs</i>							
	<i>P</i>	<i>MI</i>	<i>MF</i>	<i>BI (AF)</i>	<i>FI</i>	<i>AA</i>	<i>PI</i>
<i>P_MC.1_1</i>	.98	.01	.08	.00	.07	.10	.10
<i>P_MC.1_2</i>	.98	.00	.09	.00	.08	.13	.12
<i>P_MC.1_3</i>	.97	.02	.08	.00	.07	.12	.12
<i>P_MC.1_4</i>	.99	.01	.09	.02	.10	.13	.14
<i>P_MC.1_5</i>	.94	.04	.05	-.04	.00	.14	.10
<i>MI_MC1_1</i>	.02	.86	-.16	.06	-.04	.01	.02
<i>MI_MC1_3</i>	.01	.92	-.22	-.01	-.08	.02	.03
<i>MF_MC3_2</i>	.12	-.14	.94	.07	.11	.25	.18
<i>MF_MC3_6</i>	.03	-.27	.90	.06	.09	.19	.14
<i>BI.2_5</i>	-.01	.00	.10	.93	.13	.22	.31
<i>BI.2_6</i>	.01	.06	.01	.82	.06	.03	.20
<i>SS.1_1</i>	.04	-.05	.07	.09	.79	.09	.07
<i>SS.1_6</i>	.08	-.07	.12	.11	.91	.06	.10
<i>AA2_1</i>	.11	.02	.23	.15	.09	.94	.64
<i>AA2_2</i>	.10	-.02	.22	.16	.07	.93	.68
<i>AA2_3</i>	.14	.05	.23	.18	.11	.95	.67
<i>AA2_4</i>	.13	.01	.23	.12	.03	.93	.64
<i>PCI_1</i>	.10	.02	.17	.30	.12	.67	.95
<i>PCI_2</i>	.11	.04	.19	.31	.10	.67	.96
<i>PCI_3</i>	.13	.02	.13	.23	.06	.62	.89

Table 5-25: Outer Model Loadings and Cross-Loadings

A further assessment of discriminant validity is the Fornell-Larcker criterion, which is considered preferable to the examination of cross-loadings (Hair et al., 2013). This approach compares the square root of the AVE values with the correlations for each latent variable. The results of this test are displayed in Table 5-26.

	<i>AA</i>	<i>BI (AF)</i>	<i>FI</i>	<i>MF</i>	<i>MI</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>PI</i>
<i>Attitude toward Ad</i>	.94						
<i>Body Image (AF)</i>	.16	.88					
<i>Facial Image</i>	.08	.12	.85				
<i>Perceived Message Frame</i>	.24	.07	.11	.92			
<i>Perceived Model Idealisation</i>	.02	.03	-.07	-.22	.89		
<i>Perceived Possible Self</i>	.13	.00	.07	.08	.02	.97	
<i>Purchase Intention</i>	.70	.30	.10	.18	.03	.12	.93

Values in bold denote \sqrt{AVE} of respective constructs

Table 5-26: Fornell-Larker Criterion Analysis

Table 5-26 confirms all constructs are distinct as the \sqrt{AVE} for each construct are greater than the correlation with any other construct. The results discussed throughout this section allow the conclusion that all indicators used for the constructs were both valid and reliable.

5.6 STRUCTURAL MODEL

After confirming the validity and reliability of the measurement model, the next step is to evaluate the structural model and determine the significance of each path estimate. However, it is important to first assess whether the constructs are free from any collinearity issues and therefore free from bias (Hair et al., 2013). In order to do so, collinearity statistics for the indicator variables are displayed in Table 5-27. There are no problems with multi-collinearity.

Set 01		Set 02	
<i>Construct</i>	<i>VIF</i>	<i>Construct</i>	<i>VIF</i>
Perceived Message Frame	1.05	Body Image (AF)	1.05
Perceived Model Idealisation	1.05	Facial Image	1.02
		Attitude toward Ad	1.05
		Perceived Possible Self	1.02

Table 5-27: Collinearity Assessment of the Structural Model

The next step in the analysis is path analysis for the complete model. In the model (see Figure 5-6), the coefficient of determination (R^2) and their predictive relevance (Q^2) are displayed within the construct rectangle and the path coefficient and significance are displayed along the path lines between the relevant constructs. Non-significant paths are presented in dotted lines while confirmed relationships are the solid paths.

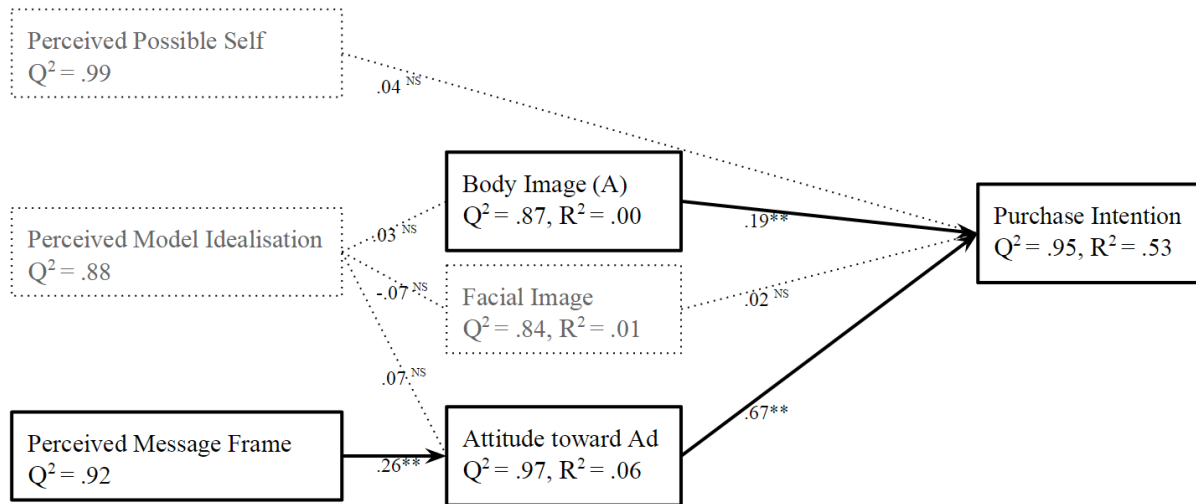


Figure 5-6: Full Structural Model

In order to determine the significance of the path coefficients a bootstrapping procedure was employed. For this research, 5000 sample sets were created with the 420 cases. The resulting t-statistics are reported in Table 5-28.

			<i>Path β</i>	<i>t</i>		<i>sig</i>
Attitude toward the Ad	→	Purchase Intention	.67	20.34	.00	**
Body Image (AF)	→	Purchase Intention	.19	5.32	.00	**
Facial Image	→	Purchase Intention	.03	.65	.52	NS
Perceived Message Frame	→	Attitude toward the Ad	.26	4.77	.00	**
Perceived Model Idealisation	→	Attitude toward the Ad	.07	1.12	.26	NS
Perceived Model Idealisation	→	Body Image (AF)	.03	.33	.74	NS
Perceived Model Idealisation	→	Facial Image	-.07	.99	.32	NS
Perceived Possible Self	→	Purchase Intention	.04	1.00	.32	NS

Table 5-28: Structural Model Path Coefficients and Significance

As shown by Figure 5-6 and Table 5-28 few relationships were significant, and the results are generally consistent with the findings in the previous Hypotheses Testing section. The perception of model idealisation did not significantly impact on Body Image (Appearance Fixation), Facial Image, or Attitude toward the Ad, consistent with the rejection of Hypotheses One and Three. However, further analysis exploring the No Model condition is discussed in the following section. Body Image (Appearance Fixation) did have a significant relationship with Purchase Intention; essentially those with a higher appearance fixation were more likely to purchase the advertised cosmetic, in accordance with Hypothesis Two(a).

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Perceived Message Frame was positively correlated with Attitude toward the Ad, confirming the relationship explored in Hypothesis Five. Participants who perceived the advertising message positively had a better Attitude toward the Ad overall. Furthermore, the analysis confirmed the strong positive relationship between Attitude toward the Ad and Purchase Intention.

In contrast to the Hypothesis Testing section, PLS failed to find a significant relationship between participants' Perceived Possible Self and their Purchase Intention. This means, when other relationships are considered, Perceived Possible Self did not significantly influence Purchase Intention. In this case, Body Image (Appearance Fixation) and Attitude toward the Ad were better predictors of Purchase Intention, so much so, the predictive value of the variable became redundant.

5.7 FURTHER ANALYSIS

5.7.1 EFFECT OF NO MODEL VERSUS MODEL ADVERTISEMENT IMAGES

Both Hypothesis Two(a,b) and Hypothesis Four pertained to the advertisement model conditions, however Hypothesis Two(b) and Hypothesis Four were rejected. This section conducts further analysis to investigate whether the inclusion of a model in cosmetic advertisements differently affects Body Image and Attitude toward the Ad than if no model is used. Therefore, participants in the More Idealised Model and Less Idealised Model conditions were recoded into a new 'Advertisement Model' condition and compared to those in the 'No Model' condition.

Firstly, Hypothesis Two(a) pertained to the effect of Model Idealisation and Body Image and this hypothesis was supported. In order to investigate whether Model or No Model conditions produced a significantly different mean Body Image (Appearance Fixation), first the means of both conditions were calculated. These means are presented in Table 5-29 and depicted in Figure 5-7.

	<i>Condition</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
Body Image (AF)	Model	4.99	1.24
	No Model	4.79	1.36

Table 5-29: Mean Body Image for Model and No Model Conditions

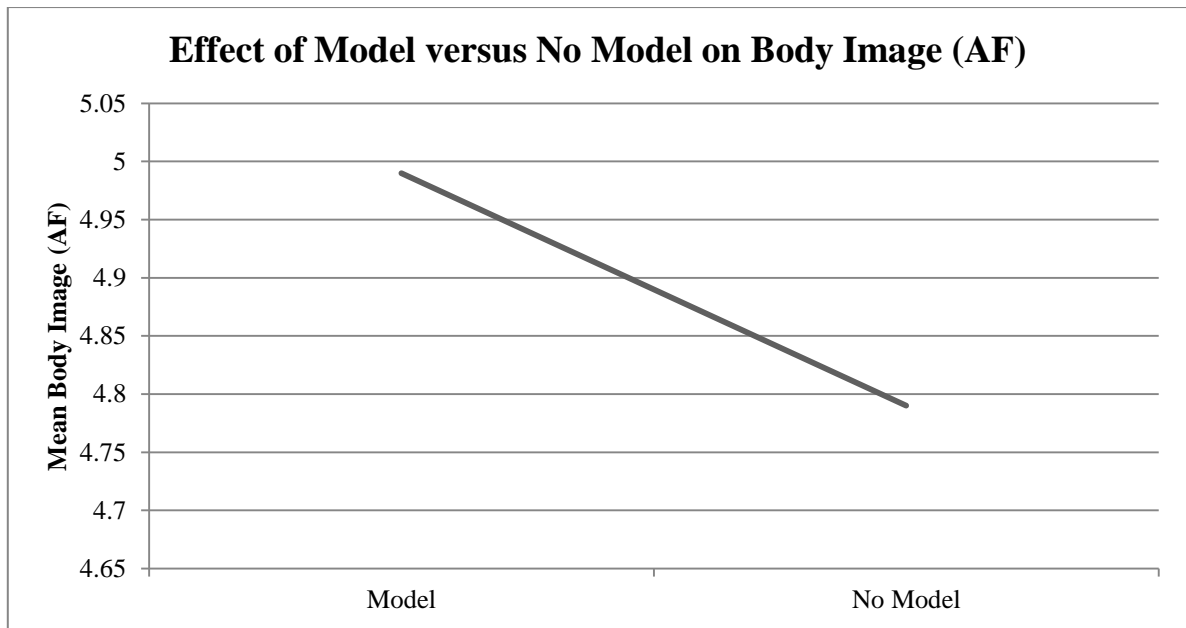


Figure 5-7: Means Plot for Effect of Model or No Model on Body Image (AF)

Table 5-29 shows the for the Model condition Body Image (Appearance Fixation) the mean is higher than the No Model condition, suggesting those who saw an advertisement with a model had greater Appearance Fixation than those who viewed an advertisement without a model. In order to test if these differences are significant an ANCOVA analysis was run, entering Body Image (Appearance Fixation) as the dependant variable. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 5-30 below.

Body Image (Appearance Fixation)			
<i>Covariates</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig</i>	η_p^2
<i>Self-esteem</i>	4.73	.03	.01
<i>Eye Makeup</i>	37.70	.00	.08
<i>Situational Use</i>	1.57	.21	.00
<i>Facial Image</i>	1.77	.18	.00
<i>Internalisation</i>	7.08	.01	.02
<i>Social Comp</i>	3.65	.06	.01
<i>(No) Model</i>	4.17	.04	.01

Table 5-30: ANCOVA Analysis for Effect of Model on Body Image

Many of the covariates are significant, similar to when the three model conditions were analysed (see Section 6.4.2). As shown in Table 5-30, Body Image (Appearance Fixation) was significantly different between the Model and No Model conditions ($F = 4.17$, $p < .05$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$). Considering this result alongside the means in Table 5-29, it can be concluded that participants had a significantly higher Body Image (Appearance Fixation) after viewing the

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Model advertisements than after viewing the No Model advertisement. This finding is consistent with the significant difference found for Model Idealisation in Hypothesis Two(a).

Turning to re-examine Hypothesis Four, which predicted participants who viewed a More Idealised Model would have a better attitude toward the advertisement than those who viewed a Less Idealised Model or those who viewed No Model. In contrast to Hypothesis Four, participants who saw no model were found to have the most positive mean Attitude toward the Ad (see Table 5-17), however there was no significant difference between the three conditions. This section explores whether there is a significant differences between those who saw a Model advertisement and those who saw a No Model advertisement, for both Attitude toward the Ad and Purchase Intention. First the means for each condition were calculated and are presented in Table 5-31.

	<i>Condition</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
Attitude toward the Ad	Model	4.90	1.57
	No Model	5.21	1.35
Purchase Intention	Model	4.52	1.69
	No Model	4.93	1.58

Table 5-31: Mean Attitude toward Ad and Purchase Intention for Model and No Model

Table 5-31 shows the means for Attitude toward the Ad and Purchase Intention are higher for the No Model condition (mean = 5.21 and 4.93 respectively) than the Model condition (mean = 4.90 and 5.52 respectively). To determine whether these differences are statistically significant, two ANCOVA analyses, one each for Attitude toward the Ad and Purchase Intention are conducted. The results are presented in Table 5-32 below.

	Dependant Variable					
	<i>Attitude toward Ad</i>			<i>Purchase Intention</i>		
Covariates	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig</i>	η_p^2	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig</i>	η_p^2
<i>Body Image (SC)</i>	0.05	.83	.00	.28	.60	.00
<i>Body Image (AF)</i>	0.92	.34	.00	7.85	.01	.02
<i>Self-esteem</i>	2.23	.14	.01	3.55	.06	.01
<i>Eye Makeup</i>	6.11	.01	.01	22.00	.00	.05
<i>Situational Use</i>	0.92	.34	.00	3.45	.06	.01
<i>Facial Image</i>	0.01	.91	.00	.09	.76	.00
<i>Internalisation</i>	0.38	.54	.00	.04	.84	.00
<i>Social Comp</i>	0.10	.75	.00	.81	.37	.00
(No) Model	3.31	.07	.01	5.13	.02	.01

Table 5-32: ANCOVA Analysis for Effect of Model on Attitude toward Ad and Purchase Intention

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Table 5-32 shows Eye Makeup Use had a significant effect on the outcome for both Attitude toward the Ad and Purchase Intention ($F = 6.11, p < .05, \eta_p^2 = .01, F = 22.00, p < .01, \eta_p^2 = .05$, respectively). Moreover, Body Image (Appearance Fixation) ($F = 7.85, p < .05, \eta_p^2 = .02$), Self-esteem ($F = 3.55, p < .1, \eta_p^2 = .01$), and Situational Cosmetic Use ($F = 3.45, p < .1, \eta_p^2 = .01$) all had a small effect on Purchase Intention.

As presented in Table 5-32, means for Attitude toward the Ad between the Model and No Model advertisement conditions were significantly different ($F = 3.31, p < .1$). However, when Purchase Intention was entered as a dependant variable, there was a significant difference between the means for the Model and No Model conditions ($F = 5.13, p < .05$).

5.7.2 THE EFFECT OF POSSIBLE SELVES AND MESSAGE FRAME

Hypotheses Seven and Eight represented the goal compatibility hypothesis, which suggested when an advertising message was consistent with a consumers goals they would experience a ‘match-up’ and the advertisement would be more persuasive. This notion has been researched using regulatory focus principles, however the current research applied the concept to the closely linked regulatory referencing concept. Both Hypothesis Seven and Hypothesis Eight were rejected, however further examination was required to understand the interaction of these two variables. Instead of combining the conditions into the coding ‘Match’ and ‘Mis-match’ the specific conditions were separated, meaning the four conditions were considered separately.

First of all, means of both Attitude toward the Ad and Purchase Intention, for each of the four possible combinations of Possible Selves and Message Framing were calculated. These means are presented below in Table 5-33 and Figure 5-8.

	<i>Condition</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
Attitude toward Ad	Hoped-for : Desired	5.31	1.24
	Hoped-for : Undesired	5.00	1.64
	Feared : Desired	4.96	1.47
	Feared : Undesired	4.73	1.61
Purchase Intention	Hoped-for : Desired	4.82	1.52
	Hoped-for : Undesired	4.81	1.69
	Feared : Desired	4.57	1.66
	Feared : Undesired	4.43	1.77

Table 5-33: Mean Attitude toward the Ad and purchase Intention for Match-Up Hypothesis

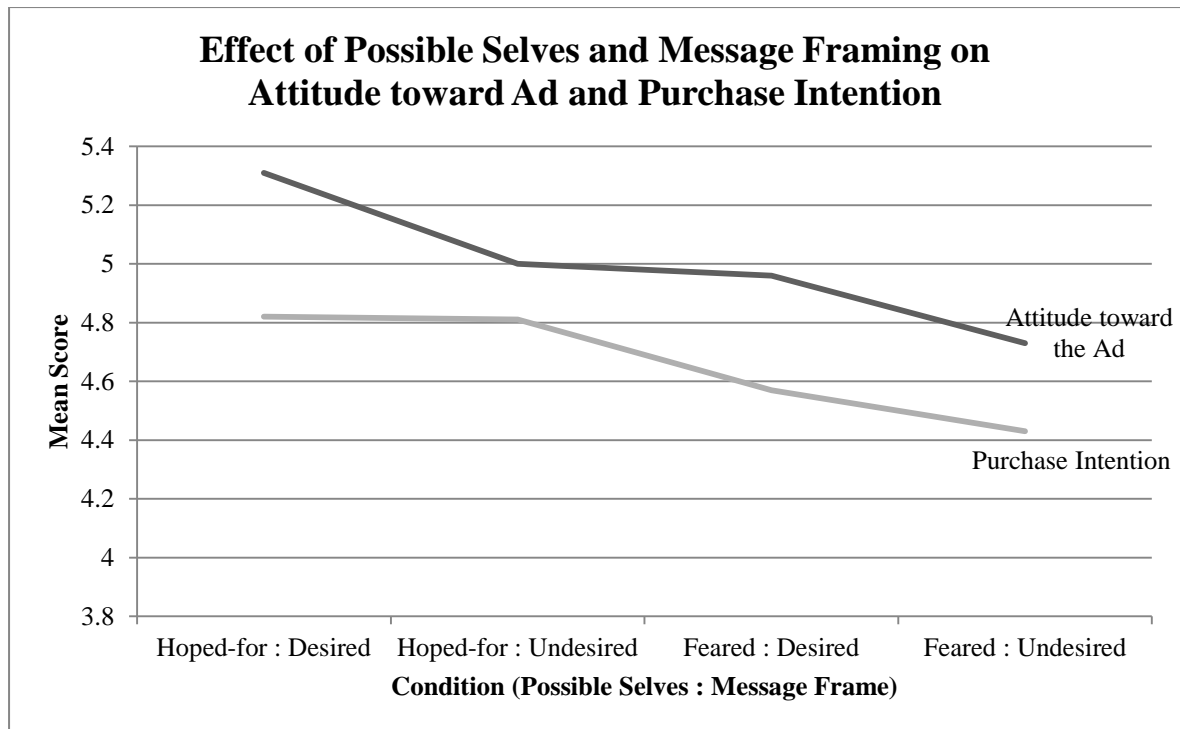


Figure 5-8: Means Plot for Effect of Possible Selves and Message Framing on Attitude and Purchase Intention

Although the Hoped-for : Desired condition has the highest mean scores for both Attitude toward the Ad and Purchase Intention, it is clear from Table 5-33 and Figure 5-8 that the Feared : Undesired condition has the lowest mean scores for both Attitude toward the Ad and Purchase Intention, in contrast to the goal compatibility hypothesis.

In order to establish if there is a significant difference between groups two two-way ANCOVA analyses was be run, one each for Attitude toward the Ad, which pertains to Hypothesis Seven, and Purchase Intention, which represents Hypothesis Eight.

	<i>Dependant Variable</i>					
	<i>Attitude toward Ad</i>			<i>Purchase Intention</i>		
<i>Covariates</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig</i>	η_p^2	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig</i>	η_p^2
Body Image (SC)	0.03	.87	.00	.29	.59	.00
Body Image (AF)	0.74	.39	.00	7.02	.01	.02
Self-esteem	2.42	.12	.01	3.40	.07	.01
Eye Makeup	5.89	.02	.01	21.30	.00	.05
Situational Use	1.18	.28	.00	4.22	.04	.01
Facial Image	0.05	.82	.00	.12	.73	.00
Internalisation	0.37	.54	.00	.04	.85	.00
Social Comp	0.24	.63	.00	1.01	.32	.00
Possible Selves	3.20	.07	.01	2.86	.09	.01
Message Frame	4.30	.04	.01	.18	.67	.00
Interaction	.10	.75	.00	.05	.83	.00

Table 5-34: ANCOVA Analysis for Effect of Possible Selves and message Frame on Attitude toward Ad and Purchase Intentions

Several covariates had significant effects. Eye Makeup Use effected both Attitude toward the Ad and Purchase Intention ($F = 5.89, p < .05, \eta_p^2 = .01, F = 21.30, p < .01, \eta_p^2 = .05$, respectively). Moreover, Body Image (Appearance Fixation) ($F = 7.02, p < .05, \eta_p^2 = .02$), Self-esteem ($F = 3.40, p < .1, \eta_p^2 = .01$), and Situational Cosmetic Use ($F = 4.22, p < .05, \eta_p^2 = .01$) all had a small effect on Purchase Intention.

Table 5-34 shows there are significant main effects of Possible Selves and Message Frame for Attitude toward the Ad ($F = 3.20, p < .1, F = 4.30, p < .05$, respectively), but not an interaction effect for these variables. Furthermore, Possible Selves has an effect on Purchase Intention ($F = 2.86, p < .1$), as found earlier, however Message Frame does not and nor is there an interaction effect.

5.7.3 INTERACTION EFFECTS OF MODEL IDEALISATION AND MESSAGE FRAME

In order to understand if there was an optimal combination of advertisement model and message frame two factor ANCOVA analyses were conducted testing the effect and interaction of the Model Idealisation and Message Frame conditions. Firstly, the means are calculated for each combination of image and copy conditions. Table 5-35 displays the means of both Attitude toward the Ad and Purchase Intention. Figure 5-9 depicts Attitude toward Ad while Figure 5-10 presents the means for Purchase Intention.

<i>Message Frame</i>	<i>Model Condition</i>	<i>Attitude toward the Ad</i>		<i>Purchase Intention</i>	
		<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
Desired	More Idealised Model	5.34	1.32	4.68	1.61
	Less Idealised Model	4.83	1.44	4.61	1.65
	No Model	5.30	1.20	4.79	1.55
Undesired	More Idealised Model	4.61	1.76	4.48	1.74
	Less Idealised Model	4.86	1.62	4.35	1.79
	No Model	5.12	1.49	5.05	1.62

Table 5-35: Mean Attitude toward the Ad and Purchase Intention for Model Idealisation

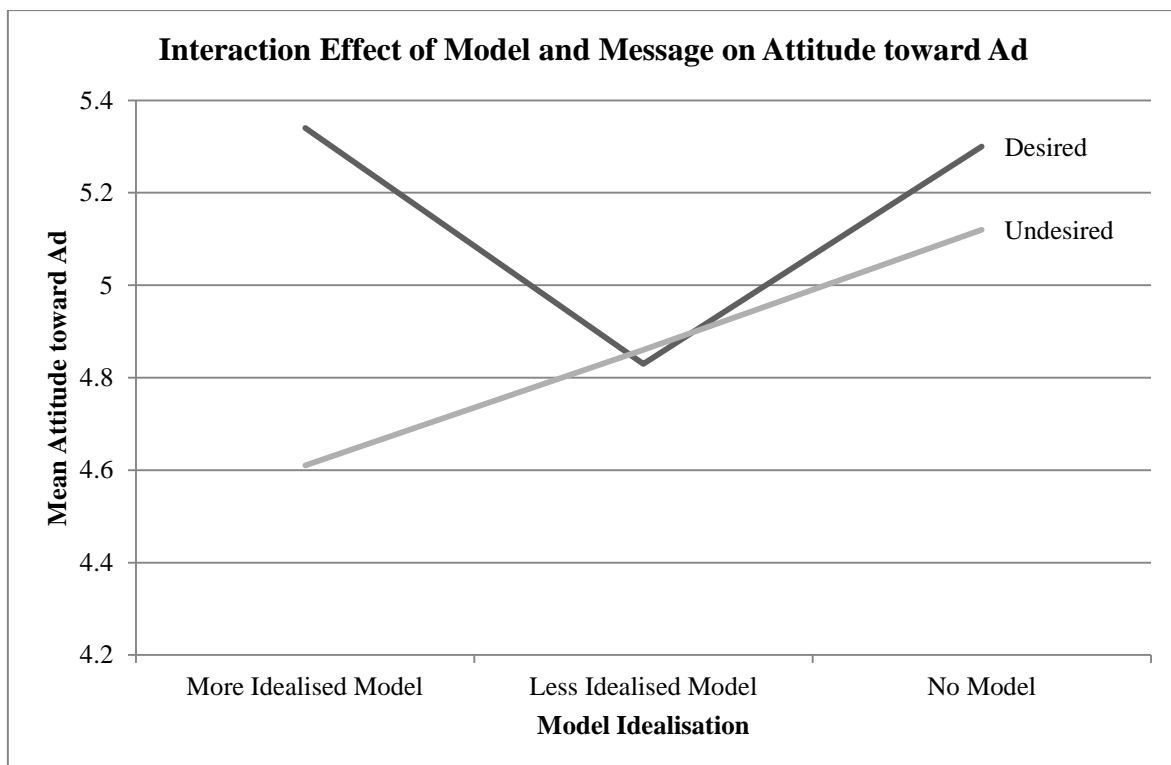


Figure 5-9: Means Plot for Effect of Model and Message on Attitude toward the Ad

Table 5-35 shows the highest mean Attitude toward the Ad was when the More Idealised Model was combined with a Desired Reference message (mean = 5.34), while the lowest mean Attitude toward the Ad was combining a More Idealised Model with an Undesired Reference message (mean = 4.61). The highest Purchase Intention was the No Model combined with an Undesired Message (mean = 5.05). The lowest Purchase Intention was when a Less Idealised Model was paired with a Undesired Message (mean = 4.35).

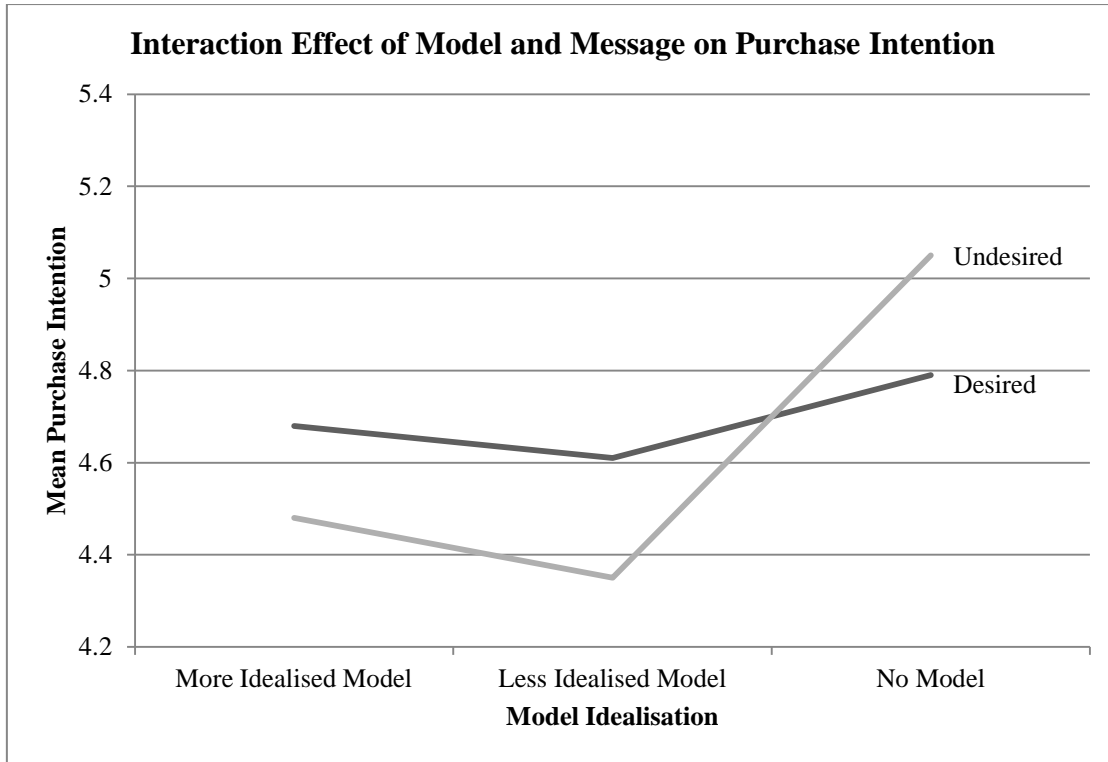


Figure 5-10: Means Plot for Effect of Model and Message on Purchase Intention

In order to determine whether these differences were significant, two factor ANCOVA analyses were conducted. The results of these analyses are presented in Table 5-36.

Covariates	Dependant Variable					
	Attitude toward Ad			Purchase Intention		
	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig</i>	η_p^2	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig</i>	η_p^2
<i>Body Image (SC)</i>	0.02	.88	.00	0.28	.60	.00
<i>Body Image (AF)</i>	1.34	.25	.00	8.07	.00	.02
<i>Self-esteem</i>	2.72	.10	.01	3.44	.06	.01
<i>Eye Makeup</i>	6.79	.01	.02	23.11	.00	.05
<i>Situational Use</i>	1.20	.27	.00	3.69	.06	.01
<i>Facial Image</i>	0.11	.74	.00	0.21	.65	.00
<i>Internalisation</i>	0.38	.54	.00	0.01	.92	.00
<i>Social Comp</i>	0.17	.68	.00	1.00	.32	.00
<i>Model Idealisation</i>	2.14	.12	.01	2.85	.06	.01
<i>Message Frame</i>	4.45	.04	.01	0.20	.65	.00
<i>Interaction</i>	3.88	.02	.02	1.90	.15	.01

Table 5-36: ANCOVA Analysis for Effect of Model Idealisation and Message Frame on Attitude toward the Ad and Purchase Intention

The results of the first factorial ANCOVA analysis pertain to participants Attitude toward the Ad. The only significant covariate was Eye Makeup Use ($F = 6.79$, $p < .05$) which had a small effect ($\eta_p^2 = .01$). As shown by Table 5-36, there is a significant main effect for Message

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Frame ($F = 4.45, p < .05$) and a significant interaction effect of Model Idealisation*Message Frame ($F = 3.88, p < .05$). This result suggests there is an optimal combination of Model Idealisation and Message Frame.

Many covariates had a significant effect on Purchase Intention. Body Image (Appearance Fixation) ($F = 8.07, p < .01, \eta_p^2 = .02$), Self-esteem ($F = 3.44, p < .1, \eta_p^2 = .01$), Eye Makeup Use ($F = 23.11, p < .01, \eta_p^2 = .05$) and Situational Cosmetic Use ($F = 3.69, p < .1, \eta_p^2 = .01$) all had a small effect on Purchase Intention. However, although there is a significant main effect for Model Idealisation ($F = 2.85, p < .1$), there was not a significant interaction effect for Model Idealisation*Message Frame for Purchase Intention.

5.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The aim of this chapter was to examine the hypotheses that were presented in Chapter Three. Each of the hypotheses were tested and an overview of the results is presented at the end of the Hypotheses Testing section in Table 5-23. Next, the model was tested using the PLS procedure, however, the model performed poorly and many of the proposed relationships were not significant. A final section of this chapter examined the interactions of several manipulations. The results presented in Chapter Five and further discussed throughout Chapter Six.

6 DISCUSSION

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter concludes the thesis by discussing the major findings in relation to the extant literature. Furthermore, the practical and theoretical implications derived from the results of the current research are discussed. Finally, the limitations of this study are outlined and suggestions for future research made.

6.2 MAJOR RESEARCH FINDINGS

6.2.1 SUMMARY OF RESEARCH PURPOSE

The cosmetics industry is a multi-billion dollar industry (statista.com, 2014) and is becoming increasingly globalised (Kumar, 2005), yet the literature on cosmetics is “by no means voluminous” and largely focussed on the “psychological correlates and consequences of cosmetic use” (Apaolaza-Ibáñez et al., 2011, p. 792) as opposed to examining cosmetics consumption from a marketing perspective (for exceptions see Antioco et al., 2012; Barnes & Yamamoto, 2008; Barnes & Yu, 2004; Gupta, 2013; Guthrie et al., 2008; Harrison, 2008; Tripathi, 2013). Women use cosmetics to achieve their own appearance goals (Guthrie et al., 2008) and matching an advertisement message to the goals of a consumer can increase the effectiveness of the advertisement (Florack & Scarabis, 2006; Kareklas et al., 2012). Furthermore, it is essential for researchers to understand how the images and copy of cosmetic advertisements work together (Harrison, 2008). Cosmetic advertisers frequently select highly idealised models (Antioco et al., 2012) which lead consumers to evaluate themselves more negatively (Richins, 1991; Smeesters & Mandel, 2006). Therefore, the current study attempted to further understanding of how consumers primed goals interacted with their perception of cosmetic advertising (specifically the image and copy) to create purchase intention.

This current study examined three key topics areas within consumer behaviour research, such that this research aimed to address how goal orientation priming, exposure to beauty ideals and different regulatory message frames all impact on consumers’ intention to purchase cosmetic products. Several theories have been synthesised to assist with the development of the current study. Goal oriented possible selves (Markus & Nurius, 1986) were integrated, as

comparators, with control theory's feedback loop (Carver & Scheier, 1982), consistent with the process of positive and negative appearance self-management (Cash, 2002). This process can drive consumption of goods considered to either 'complete' a self-image (Gollwitzer et al., 1982; Wicklund & Gollwitzer, 1981, 2013) or are 'congruent' with ones' self-image (Sirgy, 1982, 1985; Sirgy & Danes, 1982). Through a process of social comparison (Festinger, 1954) and internalisation, it was understood that participants who viewed images of highly idealised models would have worse outcomes for their body image, in comparison to participants who viewed less idealised model images or no model at all (Diedrichs & Lee, 2011; Dittmar & Howard, 2004; Halliwell & Dittmar, 2004; Halliwell et al., 2005). The message framing literature suggests message framing effectiveness depends on individual variables, such as body-consciousness, media literacy, self-view, autonomy and product category involvement (Cheng & Wu, 2010; Hevey et al., 2010; Kareklas et al., 2012; Pavey & Churchill, 2014) and can be more effective when they match viewers' primed goals (Aaker & Lee, 2001; Florack & Scarabis, 2006; Kareklas et al., 2012).

To test the research hypotheses laid out in Chapter Three, an online between-subjects factorial experiment was conducted. The results of this experiment are discussed in the remainder of this chapter.

6.2.1.1 Effects of Possible Selves on Cosmetic Product Purchase Intentions

Based on the possible selves concept (Markus & Nurius, 1986) and surrounding literature (Banister & Hogg, 2004; Sobh, 2011; Sobh & Martin, 2008), this study proposed that there would be an effect of possible selves priming on participants intention to purchase cosmetics.

The results of the ANCOVA analysis revealed there was a significant difference in Purchase Intention between the participants in the Hoped-for condition compared to the Feared condition. This finding supported the first hypothesis that those in the Hoped-for condition would have a higher Purchase Intention. This finding is aligned with the work of Sobh (2011) who reported hoped-for selves were associated with the consideration of mini facials and beauty treatments in order to reduce one's perceived discrepancy with their hoped-for self.

6.2.1.2 Effects of Exposure to Beauty Ideals in Cosmetic Advertising

Many authors have examined the effects of viewing idealised image in the media, and several meta-analyses agree there is a small but consistent negative effect of viewing idealised

images as opposed to non-idealised images (Grabe et al., 2008; Groesz et al., 2002; Holmstrom, 2004; Want, 2009).

The hypotheses pertaining to Body Image required adjustment after factor analysis identified two factors, namely Sexual Confidence (which was excluded from hypothesis testing due to this factors irrelevance to beauty ideal exposure) and Appearance Fixation (expected to be increased by exposure to beauty ideals and to have a positive relationship with purchase intention of cosmetics). In addition, this study considered the facial image construct, which has received little attention in the literature and was treated with caution, particularly after factor analysis revealed the measure proposed by Guthrie et al. (2008) performed poorly. The measure for Facial Image measured satisfaction and was hypothesised to be lower for those exposed to the More Idealised Model image than those in the No Model or Less Idealised Model conditions.

As discussed in the previous chapter, an effect for the image condition was found for Body Image (Appearance Fixation). Participants who viewed the More Idealised Model had the highest Appearance Fixation after exposure, while participants who were in the No Model condition had the lowest Appearance Fixation of the image conditions. The effect of image condition on Body Image (Appearance Fixation) is consistent with much of the body image research, which suggests exposure to ideals has negative outcomes, particularly for some individuals (Cahill & Mussap, 2007; Durkin & Paxton, 2002; Engeln-Maddox, 2005; Posavac et al., 1998). Furthermore, participants with a higher Appearance Fixation were found to have higher Purchase Intention than those with lower Appearance Fixation. These findings offered support to Hypothesis Two(a) and Hypothesis Three(a). In contrast, Model Idealisation was not found to have a significant effect on Facial Image, nor did Facial Image have a relationship with Purchase Intention, resulting in the rejections of Hypothesis Two(b) and Hypothesis Three(b).

There is some evidence consumers prefer aspirational images in advertising (Bower & Landreth, 2001; Nichols & Schumann, 2012), but in contrast, different results suggest average models can be equally effective in advertising to idealised or no models (Diedrichs & Lee, 2011; Halliwell & Dittmar, 2004; Halliwell et al., 2005). Hypothesis Four suggested participants who viewed the More Idealised Model would have the most positive Attitude toward the Ad compared to participants in the Less Idealised Model or No Model conditions.

This hypothesis was rejected as Model Idealisation did not have a significant effect on Attitude toward the Ad.

Further analyses were conducted which involved recoding the two conditions with models in the advertisement (Idealised Model and Non-idealised Model) and comparing this new condition to the No Model condition. The mean scores revealed the No Model condition elicited the most positive response to the advertisement, which contrasts with some previous results (Bower & Landreth, 2001; Nichols & Schumann, 2012). In addition, this further analysis revealed there was a significant effect for Body Image (Appearance Fixation) and Purchase Intention.

6.2.1.3 Effects of Regulatory Message Framing in Cosmetic Advertising

Derived from the message framing literature, Hypothesis Five predicted participants who viewed the advertisements with a Desired Reference message frame would have more positive Attitude toward the Ad than those who viewed an advertisement containing an Undesired Reference message frame.

The study confirmed there was an effect of the message frame on Attitude toward the Ad. Furthermore, there was a positive relationship between Perceived Message Frame and Attitude toward the Ad. This result supports findings which suggest positive messages are more effective than negative messages (Arora, 2007; Buda & Zhang, 2000; Cheng & Wu, 2010).

6.2.1.4 Interaction of Goal Orientation, Beauty Ideals, Message Framing in a Cosmetics Context

Firstly, the Hypothesised interactions between Goal Orientation and Message Framing are discussed. Hypotheses Seven and Eight pertain to the goal compatibility hypothesis which suggests when advertising messages match a consumers goal the advertisement will be more effective (Zinkhan & Hong, 1991). This research found no significant differences in Attitude toward the Ad or Purchase Intention between Matched and Mismatched conditions. When this finding was explored further it was found that the double negative condition (Feared Self and Undesired Message) produced the lowest mean score. However, there was not a significant interaction effect for the Possible Selves priming and Message Frame for either Attitude toward the Ad or Purchase Intention.

Although not directly hypothesised, Harrison (2008) alluded to the importance of understanding how images and text in cosmetic advertisements relate to each other. The

importance of this interaction was confirmed when the results of this study revealed a significant interaction effect for the Model Idealisation and Message Frame conditions. As Table 5-35 and Figure 5-9 suggest, the best Attitude toward the Ad came from pairing either an Idealised Model or No Model image with a Desired Reference message frame. In contrast, the more negative response to the ad came from the participants who saw an Idealised Model and an Undesired Reference message frame.

6.2.1.5 *Covariates*

ANCOVA analyses revealed that Attitude toward the Ad was consistently affected by Eye Makeup Use and the correlations revealed a positive correlation between Attitude toward the Ad and Eye Makeup Use. Taken together, these results suggest that participants who are high users of mascara, eyeliner and eyeshadow are also likely to have a positive response to an advertisement for mascara.

Purchase Intention was affected by Body Image (Appearance Fixation), Eye Makeup Use, Situational Cosmetics Use and in some situations Self-esteem. Correlations suggest participants with high Appearance Fixation, Self-esteem, Eye Makeup Use and Situational Cosmetic Use will also likely have a high Purchase Intention.

6.3 PATH ANALYSIS OF THE CONCEPTUAL MODEL

The model performed poorly using the SmartPLS3.0 software however, some significant relationships were confirmed. Generally, the results of the PLS were consistent with the regression analyses completed during hypothesis testing, with the only exception being that the PLS procedure revealed when Attitude toward the Ad and participants' Body Image (AF) were considered as influencers on Purchase Intention, the effect of Perceived Possible Self was not significant and eliminated. Perceived Message Frame had a significant positive relationship with Attitude toward the Ad. Furthermore, significant results were not found for the relationships between Perceived Possible Self and Purchase Intention, Perceived Model Idealisation and Body Image, Facial Image and Attitude toward the Ad. Both Attitude toward the Ad and Body Image (AF) had positive significant relationships with Purchase Intention.

6.4 DISCUSSION OF MAIN FINDINGS

Expanding on the work of Sobh (2011), based on the possible selves conceptualisation of goal orientation (Markus & Nurius, 1986; Markus & Ruvolo, 1989), the current study examined the effects of priming for either hoped-for or feared possible selves on purchase intention for an advertised cosmetic product. The results revealed Hoped-for Self primed participants had a significantly higher Purchase Intention than Feared Self primed participants. This finding suggests those participants whose possible self saliency was focused on appearance characteristics they hope to have, were more likely to indicate they would purchase the advertised product; mascara, than the participants whose salient possible self was a feared appearance. This finding conflicts with Banister and Hogg, who reported avoidance of feared selves had the greatest impact on consumption of fashion goods (Banister & Hogg, 2004; Hogg & Banister, 2001), which, like cosmetics, are appearance related products. However, Sobh (2011) found that while ageing-related feared selves increased the intention to use invasive procedures such as Botox and collagen fillers, hoped-for selves were associated with the consumption intention for beauty treatments and mini-facials.

This research did not have a control condition for the manipulation of possible self saliency. The design of this study means it is not possible to distinguish exactly what the effect of Possible Selves priming is. As suggested by Banister and Hogg (2004), increasing the saliency of feared selves could increase purchase intention for appearance related goods such as fashion items and cosmetics in comparison to not increasing feared self saliency. In addition, increasing hoped-for self saliency could also increase intention to purchase cosmetic products, consistent with the findings of Sobh (2011). It is possible that increasing either feared or hoped-for self saliency increases a consumers' intention to purchase mascara.

Many researchers have examined the effects of exposure to idealised models in the media (Grabe et al., 2008; Groesz et al., 2002; Holmstrom, 2004; Want, 2009). However, one issue with generalising these results is the alternative conditions used in many studies (Holmstrom, 2004). The current research attempted to clarify the effects of using both an idealised model, a less or non-idealised model and no model at all in cosmetic product advertisements. The body image literature generally agrees exposure to ideals has small negative outcomes for viewers' self-perception, in comparison to alternative images (Grabe et al., 2008; Groesz et al., 2002; Holmstrom, 2004; Want, 2009). This notion is consistent with the finding that participants who viewed the most idealised model had the highest appearance fixation, while those who did not

view a model had the lowest appearance fixation. The findings suggest that advertisements without a model do not have negative effects on body image. Because the No Model condition acts as a control for this aspect of the study, it is possible to infer that Appearance Fixation increases with Model Idealisation in cosmetic advertising.

However, the results failed to find an effect of Model Idealisation on Facial Image which was assumed to be inherently similar to body image. The lack of significant results involving facial image was not completely unexpected because the concept has not been extensively researched and the quality of the publications which develop and discuss the facial image measure, are questionable (Guthrie et al., 2008; Kim & Kim, 2011). Instead, it is possible that either facial image is indeed effected by exposure to beauty ideals, but this effect was not sufficiently captured by the measure proposed by Guthrie et al. (2008), or the two Model manipulations were not sufficiently manipulated to create significant differences between the groups. Given there is a failure in either the measurement or the manipulation of this aspect of the research, based on the means of the respective conditions (See Table 5-13 and Figure) it is possible that viewing a Non-idealised Model *increases* Facial Image, rather than Facial Image *decreasing* after to viewing an Idealised Model, assuming the mean Facial Image for the No Model condition acts as a control and reflects baseline Facial Image.

The results of this study confirmed that Body Image (Appearance Fixation) has a positive relationship to Purchase Intention. This means that participants who were highly involved in their appearance were more likely to report purchase intention for the advertised cosmetic product. This finding is supported by the literature which has previously found anxiety, conformity and self-presentation are all positively correlated with cosmetic use (Robertson et al., 2008). In contrast, a significant relationship was not found between Facial Image and Purchase Intention. This finding suggests that an individuals' satisfaction with their face and eyes is not related to their purchase intentions for mascara. Again, the quality of the Facial Image measure has been questioned in this research.

Further analysis revealed interesting results when the two model conditions were recoded to create a Model condition and compared against the No Model advertisements. The results suggest that using no models in cosmetic advertising results in lower Body Image (Appearance Fixation), more positive Attitude toward the Ad and higher Purchase Intention. Firstly, in regard to Body Image, it is an inherent aspect of Festinger's (1954) social comparison theory that is a comparison not made then an individual will not experience a change in self-

perception, which is supported by this finding. While the majority of researchers have focussed attention on which types of models are more effective advertisement tools (Caballero & Solomon, 1984, Goodman, Morris, & Sutherland, 2008, Joseph, 1982; Trampe, Stapel, Siero, & Mulder, 2010), there is some evidence that using no model may be as effective (Diedrichs & Lee, 2011). It is unclear whether using idealised models lowers consumers' attitude toward the ad and purchase intention, or if not having a model increases their attitude and intentions. However, it is possible that these results have been influenced by the recent negative public attention that female ideals in the media have received, specifically in regard to digital alternations (e.g. Adams, 2013; Diller, 2011; Krashinsky, 2013; Lankston, 2014; Lyons, 2014). Another possible reason for the effectiveness of the no model advertisements is that the models simply serve as a distraction from the advertised product.

Synthesising the message framing literature revealed that although there is evidence that messages which include undesired references can be more effective in some situations (Meyerowitz & Chaiken, 1987; Thomas et al., 2011), in general, the studies which include both desired and undesired messages (even if unconsciously) find messages which include desired references are more effective (Buda & Zhang, 2000; Chang, 2007; Cheng & Wu, 2010). This was also the case for the current study and the participants who viewed the advertisements which contained a Desired Reference message frame reported more positive Attitude toward the Ad than those who had viewed advertisements with an Undesired Reference message frame. Essentially, this result suggests advertisements which use desired references, meaning they are aspirational, are preferable to advertisements which use undesired references.

The notion of goal compatibility has been tested and supported, in regard to regulatory focus theory (Florack & Scarabis, 2006; Kareklas et al., 2012; Kim, 2006), however the current study applied goal compatibility theory to regulatory referencing. The results of this aspect of the study were not significant and no effect was found for Matched versus Mismatched conditions for either Attitude toward the Ad or Purchase Condition. Initially, it could be thought that priming of possible selves through an Internet administered visualisation task was not effective enough to produce significant results, however further analysis revealed the 'matched' condition of Feared Self and Undesired Reference message produced the lowest mean scores for both Attitude toward the Ad and Purchase Intention. This result instead suggests that goal compatibility theory simply is limited to regulatory focus and does not apply to regulatory references. The further analysis of the four possible combinations of Possible Selves and

Message Frames revealed two main effects for Attitude toward the Ad, consistent with earlier findings that Hoped-for selves and Desired Messages were more effective. However, there was not an interaction between these conditions. Furthermore, there was no interaction found for Possible Selves and Message Frames affecting Purchase Intention. This finding means the underlying concepts of Possible Selves and Message Frames held true, but that the current study offered no support to the goal compatibility literature which has consistently found matched messages are most effective (Aaker & Lee, 2001; Florack & Scarabis, 2006; Kareklas et al., 2012; Kim, 2006; Nan, 2008).

Finally, the interaction identified between the Model Idealisation conditions and Message Frames was addressed. The results revealed a large difference in mean Attitude toward the Ad for participants who viewed a More Idealised Model dependant on which message the image was paired with. The most positive response to the advertisement came from participants who viewed the More Idealised Model paired with the Desired Reference message frame, in contrast to if they had seen the same model paired with an Undesired Reference message frame. The use of highly idealised models and either desired or undesired references is widespread in the cosmetics industry, however this result suggests when highly idealised women accompany undesired messages, consumers will react poorly. This Idealised and Undesired combination is often seen in anti-aging related products, which include highly idealised models and messages about the “lines and blemishes” (Rea, 2012, p. 161). Moreover, the results suggest that the effectiveness of using a desired reference message frame is mitigated when it is paired with a less-idealised model. Therefore, cosmetics companies such as *Dove*, *CoverGirl* and *Revlon* who attempt to gain positive consumer responses by using less-idealised models (Antioco et al., 2012; Millard, 2009; Nichols & Schumann, 2012) and often desired messages, may be better off using no model at all.

6.5 RESEARCH IMPLICATIONS AND CONTRIBUTIONS

6.5.1 MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

Firstly, this research provides further insight into how consumers respond to possible selves priming scenarios when considering cosmetic product advertisements. This research suggests hoped-for selves produced the higher mean purchase intentions for the advertised product and this reinforces the general idea that thinking about an aspirational appearance motivates

consumers to consider products they perceive as capable to moving their current appearance closer to their hoped-for appearance. First of all, this suggests that non-invasive beauty products, such as mascara, are more associated with reducing a discrepancy between the actual self and a hoped-for self, as opposed to increasing a discrepancy between a feared self and the actual self (Sobh, 2011). Marketing managers want their potential consumers have to have strong image of what they want to look like when they view advertisements for cosmetics such as mascara. Consequently, brand managers should to consider methods to invoke consumers' hoped-for self saliency in order to strengthen their purchase intentions. Although this research was unable to test 'real-life' circumstances, it is possible that variables such as the placement of advertising in a magazine geared towards aspirational goals would be more effective, than if it had been placed in a magazine which was more aligned with consumers' feared selves. Additionally, this research found that overall desired reference message frames work best for cosmetic advertisements, however as the only product tested was mascara, it is possible that different cosmetic products, for example concealer, may work better with undesired reference message frames.

Cosmetics have been traditionally advertised using images of highly idealised females (Apaolaza-Ibáñez et al., 2011) and it is widely accepted that some individuals can be more negatively affected by viewing idealised images and that this can have flow on effects associated with poor body image, low self-esteem and the development of eating disorder symptomology (Cahill & Mussap, 2007; Durkin & Paxton, 2002; Posavac et al., 1998). The current research supports this notion and found that viewing images of idealised models in cosmetic advertisements did have an effect on consumers' appearance fixation. Overall, consumers who viewed cosmetics advertisements with no model had lower appearance fixation than those who viewed an advertisement featuring either a highly idealised or even a less idealised model.

There is ongoing debate in regard to the use of idealised models in this industry and some marketers express concerns that the use of more realistic models do not appeal to consumers (Diedrichs et al., 2011) and too much realism could compromise their brands (Antioco et al., 2012). However, this research contests the effectiveness of using idealised models. Findings suggest consumers do not always prefer idealised images, particularly when paired with an undesired reference message frame, whereas using no model in an advertisement is more effective regardless of message frame. These results call for marketers to consider adjusting the

focus of their advertisements to the product, rather than the model. Moreover, this research found that less idealised models are more effective than pairing a highly idealised model with undesired references. Idealised models are often paired with undesired references when advertising correction-type products, and this research suggests advertisements which contain messages about reducing dark circles, smoothing fine lines, or concealing blemishes should not use highly idealised images. Managers of products which offer these corrective abilities would benefit from using less idealised models or no models at all in their advertisements.

6.5.2 THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS AND CONTRIBUTIONS

Although this research was largely geared toward practical implications, there are some theoretical contributions made. This research supports the notion that possible selves are important for consumer behaviour researchers (Morgan, 1993). Moreover, this research provides further evidence that possible selves can be activated by priming tasks (Sobh, 2011; Sobh & Martin, 2008; Wheeler et al., 2007; Wheeler et al., 2008). In addition, an alternative method for measurement of salient possible selves is put forward for further development, rather than researchers coding participants' descriptions of their salient possible self; participants themselves are able to successfully code their own responses.

This research also extended the literature surrounding body ideals to include beauty ideals. The body ideal literature generally agrees exposure to ideals has a small negative effect on body image, at least in contrast to less idealised models or no model at all (Grabe et al., 2008; Groesz et al., 2002; Holmstrom, 2004; Want, 2009), and this research found this notion holds for beauty ideals as well. Furthermore, this research found support for the notion that highly idealised models may illicit a defensive reaction from consumers who evaluate them more negatively when their self-evaluation is affected (Bower, 2001). Social comparison was measured as a covariate in this research and the results show Social Comparison to Models was negatively correlated with self-esteem and sexual confidence. In addition, when the comparing the effect of using a model versus no model on appearance fixation social comparison also had an effect, which is consistent with the theory that people will engage in social comparison with something they deem similar to themselves (Festinger, 1954).

Theoretically, this thesis made a contribution by providing a more comprehensive overview of the goal related message framing typologies. Few authors acknowledge both the influence of regulatory focus and regulatory references in their manipulation of message frames, and often prevention messages are paired with undesired references, while promotion messages are

paired with desired references. This research contributed to the message framing field by attempting to de-bias the results by removing regulatory focus and using semantically similar messages differing in regulatory reference only. The findings suggest that regulatory references do have an impact on response to advertisements on their own. Researchers are urged to consider both manipulation of focus and reference in further studies in this area. Moreover, the goal compatibility hypothesis (Zinkhan & Hong, 1991) was applied to regulatory references, and unsupported; further emphasising these two aspects of approach and avoidance motivation work differently.

6.6 LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

There are several limitations that need to be considered when interpreting the findings of this research.

First and foremost, only one product was tested in this research, meaning the results are not necessarily generalisable to all cosmetics. Mascara is the most widely used cosmetic (Britton, 2012; Dickman, 2010) and can be used to avoid a feared self or approach hoped-for self, because it can “thicken puny eyelashes” or “enhance beautiful eyes” (Bower & Landreth, 2001, p. 2). However, it is possible that mascara is more associated with aspiration than avoidance, whereas a cosmetic such as concealer might have a more avoidance geared nature. Further research should examine differing cosmetic products in a similar design to the current study in order to understand how different cosmetic products may influence the findings.

Similarly, an unknown brand was tested, and it has been established cosmetics brands have existing brand personalities which influence consumers differently (Gupta, 2013; Guthrie et al., 2008; Kim & Kim, 2011). Therefore, if brand managers of cosmetic companies applied these findings to their recognised brand, issues of brand congruency may arise. Further research could be conducted to investigate whether these findings are consistent when differing known brands are used.

Another consideration of this study is that an Internet administered visualisation task does not have the same effect as naturally occurring possible self primes on consumers purchase intentions. Situations such as shopping for upcoming special event may induce either hoped-for or feared self saliency and have a different effect on consumption decisions than the effect shown in this study. The constraints of this research meant it was not possible to observe and

measure real consumer behaviour, but future research would benefit from understanding how these concepts apply to real situations. In addition, the manipulation of possible self saliency did not have a control condition. Future research should consider the inclusion of a control in which consumers possible self saliency is not manipulated to determine whether priming of either or both hoped-for and feared possible selves increases advertisement effectiveness.

The manipulation of model 'idealisation' was difficult given the evolving nature of this concept. The results of the model idealisation measure demonstrated what was intended to be a non-idealised model condition actually produced a 'less-idealised' perception. This means some of the results were difficult to align with previous research, however, the application of this finding is actually more realistic as marketers are not likely to use non-idealised images and instead should be encouraged to broaden the conceptualisation of an ideal.

The measures for both Body Image and Facial Image may also need further refinement. Researchers replicating this study would benefit from more carefully selecting a body image measure rather than selecting an abbreviated version of the whole Body Self-relations Questionnaire. Instead using the full Appearance Evaluation factor would have been more appropriate for this research. Alternatively the Body Image States Scale (Cash, Fleming, Alindogan, Steadman, & Whitehead, 2002) may have been a better measure for the body image concept discussed in this research. In addition, the poor validity and reliability of Guthrie's (2008) Facial Image scale suggests a redevelopment of this measure would benefit research in this area.

The current research was limited to considering regulatory reference message frames, however as demonstrated by the literature review, a variety of different combinations of gain, non-gain, loss, non-loss message frames can be combined with regulatory references, which is more reflective of real cosmetic advertisements. Further research should investigate the different combinations of regulatory focus and regulatory references in cosmetic advertising but also in all contexts.

6.7 CONCLUDING REMARKS

The main aim of this research was to understand how a persons' goal oriented possible selves impacts on their perception of cosmetic advertising, with varying images and messages. The results indicate hoped-for selves priming as opposed to feared selves priming created greater

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purchase intentions and advertisements containing no model and desired message frames as opposed to those with models and undesired message frames, are independently the most effective in the cosmetics context. Although the research found no interaction of the three main independent variables; possible selves, model idealisation and message frames, an interaction was identified for the combination of models and messages. Marketing managers are offered an alternative option to using highly idealised models in their advertising. Moreover, encouraging consumers to consider their hoped-for selves and using desired references in advertisements were found to be more effective than feared selves or undesired references.

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8 APPENDICES

8.1 EXPERT INTERVIEWS

8.1.1 INFORMATION FORM

Department of Management, Marketing and Entrepreneurship
Telephone: +64 3 364 2987
Email: rachael.worsley@pg.canterbury.ac.nz



The Influence of Goal Orientation and Cosmetic Advertising on Cosmetic Product Purchase Intentions

Information Sheet

You have been invited to participate as a subject in a research project investigating cosmetic use and advertising. The aim of this project is to discover and understand why people use the makeup they do and how advertising might be able to influence this.

Your involvement in this research will be to participate in a short one on one discussion with the purpose of selecting and developing stimuli for this study.

You will be shown several pictures of women and asked to discuss these photos in comparison to appearance ideals and cosmetic advertisements you have seen. These photos may include images of idealised models and if you feel uncomfortable viewing them at any time alternative images can be discussed. Brief notes will be taken by the researcher during this session. You will be offered the opportunity to view these notes and make changes if you wish to do so.

Your name and identity will not be recorded and will remain confidential. You have the right to withdraw from the project at any time, including any notes taken during your session.

The results of this research may be published however you may be assured of the complete confidentiality of all data collected.

This project is being carried out as a requirement for my Master's in Marketing at the University of Canterbury, New Zealand. If you have any concerns about this project please discuss them with my supervisor, Paul Ballantine, who can be contacted at paul.ballantine@canterbury.ac.nz

This project has been reviewed and approved by the University of Canterbury Human Ethics Committee low risk process.

Thank you for your time!

Warm regards,

Researcher: Rachael Worsley (rachael.worsley@pg.canterbury.ac.nz)

Supervisor: Paul Ballantine (paul.ballantine@canterbury.ac.nz)

8.1.2 CONSENT FORM

Department of Management, Marketing and Entrepreneurship
Telephone: +64 3 364 2987
Email: rachael.worsley@pg.canterbury.ac.nz



**The Influence of Goal Orientation and Cosmetic Advertising
on Cosmetic Product Purchase Intentions**

Consent Form

I have been given a full explanation of this project and have had the opportunity to ask questions.

I understand what is required of me if I agree to take part in the research.

I understand that participation is voluntary and I may withdraw at any time without penalty. Withdrawal of participation will also include the withdrawal of any information I have provided should this remain practically achievable.

I understand that any information or opinions I provide will be kept confidential to the researcher and supervisor and that any published or reported results will not identify the participants. I understand that a thesis is a public document and will be available through the UC Library.

I understand that all data collected for the study will be kept in locked and secure facilities and/or in password protected electronic form and will be destroyed after five years.

I understand the risks associated with taking part and how they will be managed.

I understand that I am able to receive a report on the findings of the study by contacting the researcher at the conclusion of the project.

I understand that I can contact the researcher Rachael Worsley (rachael.worsley@pg.canterbury.ac.nz) or supervisor Paul Ballantine (paul.ballantine@canterbury.ac.nz) for further information. If I have any complaints, I can contact the Chair of the University of Canterbury Human Ethics Committee, Private Bag 4800, Christchurch (human-ethics@canterbury.ac.nz)

By signing below, I agree to participate in this research project.

APPENDICES

8.1.3 INTERVIEW #1 NOTES

Participant: SD

Expert: Photoshop, design, advertising, fine arts.

Consent form: read and signed.

Interview duration: 30 minutes

Interview Purpose: describe components of common cosmetic advertisements; identify commonalities and uses of Photoshop

Models themselves: the models are all young, white women. Furthermore, their highlights (cheekbones, nose, chin) have been made even whiter in post-production (indicates images B and G). They are all attractive people to start off with. Faces all shot pretty much front on, very symmetrical – possibly through Photoshop mirroring (especially image B). Post editing has sharpened the edge of their faces around jawline and chin – very defined line (Images B and C used as examples). The edges of their faces have been shaded to thin out the face.

Skin: None of the girls have pores, very Photoshopped. They all have even skin tone. Post production has emphasised highlights and low lights to create leading lines to lips. No personal features such as freckles or discolouration visible – essentially perfected

Eyes: The whites of the models eyes are very very white with no veins etc. (refers to images C and G). After photo they have added dark makeup, (indicates to image C) and way more than natural eyelashes. Blue eyes very common, unnaturally blue (Images A, B, D, G).

Noses: Very thin and suspiciously symmetrical (viewing images B, C, D).

Lips: The models lips are often feature of the advertisement, particularly shiny and very defined. Line between lips shaded in darker (indicates to images C, E), makes lips look plumper. Teeth Photoshopped to be very white and perfect (refers to images A and F).

Overall model – hands, necks, shoulders which do show are thin and natural lines removed (indicates to images E, F, G).

Background of the image: Bokeh effect (indicates images A, F, H) or very plain backgrounds – nothing really there. Often either very light or very dark (Uses images C and H as examples). Any colours used match that of the featured product (indicates images C and D).

Product Placement – Product is in line with the lips (Refers to images A, C, D), not obstructing face, bottom corner. Product placement is in balance with the rest of the image. Post production has put light around product to make it stand out (especially image B).

Review: Interview went well; easy to talk too, participant was interested in research. Understood purpose of input well, didn't require many prompts. Next time discuss eyebrows, hairlines, faceshape, and wording of advertisements (location, size and meaning). What is added into the original image? Which is the most common type of advertisement you see?

APPENDICES



Image A



Image B



Image C



Image D



Image E



Image F



Image G



Image H

8.1.4 INTERVIEW #2 NOTES

Participant: RR

Expert: consumer

Consent form: verbal over skype

Interview duration: 35 minutes

Interview Purpose: describe ideals and real beauty, describe components of common cosmetic advertisements

Talking about idealised images of women in the media, what does this mean to you? These women are usually famous, very sexually portrayed and images often focus on specific parts of their bodies. In terms of faces, everyone has perfect skin, they are never shiny and their makeup never weirdly reflects the light. They also have perfectly done hair, whether it be tousled or tidy it always looks like their stylist did it seconds before the photo. You never see running eye makeup or spots.

Discuss these images of real cosmetic advertisements, what are the trends, common aspects? (Images A-H) All young attractive women, with perfect skin, no pores or freckles which have obviously been take out. The more you look at them they grosser they actually are (indicates images C and D). Even Kate (image E) looks different to how she really looks, first you think she looks great then you realise her skin is perfect and they have changed the shape of her eyes a bit and made her glow, nobody actually glows. They all look like they have had ridiculous amounts of eyelashes added and their eyes have been whited, they have no yellow or pink bits in their eyes.

What do you think of these images? Idealised, most similar to previous etc (images I-N)

Ugh, Image J is so Photoshopped, but she is the one which most represents a media ideal, she looks like Barbie, perfect skin, big blue eyes and so symmetrical. But nobody actually wants to look like that. Image A and L are my favourites, both stunning girls and nice photos, they should be on advertisements but not really for makeup because they aren't wearing heaps. But Image J is definitely the one which is the most edited and perfected.

The one which would be most damaging for people's self-esteem I guess would be J. All of them actually make you feel a bit non-beautiful, but I feel like image K is sort of too achievable. Images I and M are good makeup and good photography.

Which of the following images best represents natural beauty? (Images O-T)

Image O is the nicest, she looks pretty and natural, and the lighting definitely helps. Image R would also be a good model for natural beauty but it isn't a very good photo. Image Q is too hairy and spotty. Image P you get distracted by her spots but she has really nice eyes. Image O also selected for 'real beauty'.

Discussing wording examples. Concealer examples sound like things you would actually see on advertisements.

APPENDICES

Review: Continue working on non-idealised image, I think the idealised is ideal enough, could even tone it back maybe – but do want definitive results. Reduce appearance of makeup and spots on non-idealised, maybe make her eyes more interesting but not blue.

Wording for concealer is good but need to work on the same for mascara advertisements.

Images A-H were identical to Interview #1



Image I

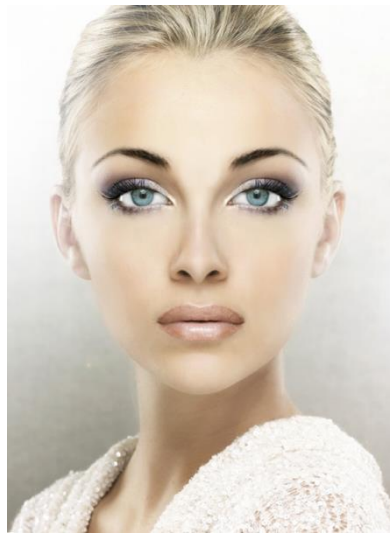


Image J

8.1.5 INTERVIEW #3 NOTES

Participant: MH

Expert: Trained makeup salesperson

Consent form: read and signed.

Interview duration: 35 minutes

Interview Purpose: describe components of common cosmetic advertisements; identify images of young women which would likely be used in similar advertisements; describe ideals and real beauty

Why do you use mascara? I use it most days even though I don't wear much makeup because I have small beady eyes otherwise... don't really want that on an advertisement though.

Concealer? Don't often use it, only to cover a spot or whatever if I have one that I am worried about, I am a bit of a minimalist.

Discuss these images of real cosmetic advertisements, what are the trends, common aspects? (Images A-H) All young attractive women, with perfect skin, no pores or freckles which have obviously been taken out. The more you look at them the grosser they actually are (indicates images C and D). Even Kate (image E) looks different to how she really looks, first you think she looks great then you realise her skin is perfect and they have changed the shape of her eyes a bit and made her glow, nobody actually glows. They all look like they have had ridiculous amounts of eyelashes added and their eyes have been whited, they have no yellow or pink bits in their eyes.

What do you think of these images? Idealised, most similar to previous etc (images I-N)
Ugh, Image J is so Photoshopped, but she is the one which most represents a media ideal, she looks like Barbie, perfect skin, big blue eyes and so symmetrical. But nobody actually wants to look like that. Image A and L are my favourites, both stunning girls and nice photos, they should be on advertisements but not really for makeup because they aren't wearing heaps. But Image J is definitely the one which is the most edited and perfected.

The one which would be most damaging for people's self-esteem I guess would be J. All of them actually make you feel a bit non-beautiful, but I feel like image K is sort of too achievable. Images I and M are good makeup and good photography.

Which of the following images best represents natural beauty? (Images O-T)

Image O is the nicest, she looks pretty and natural, and the lighting definitely helps. Image R would also be a good model for natural beauty but it isn't a very good photo. Image Q is too hairy and spotty. Image P you get distracted by her spots but she has really nice eyes. Image O also selected for 'real beauty'.

Discussing wording examples. Concealer examples sound like things you would actually see on advertisements.

Review: Continue working on non-idealised image, I think the idealised is ideal enough, could even tone it back maybe – but do want definitive results. Reduce appearance of makeup and

APPENDICES

spots on non-idealised, maybe make her eyes more interesting but not blue. Wording for concealer is good but need to work on the same for mascara advertisements.

Images A-H were identical to those discussed in Interviews #1 and #2.



Image I



Image J



Image K



Image L



Image M



Image N

APPENDICES



Image O

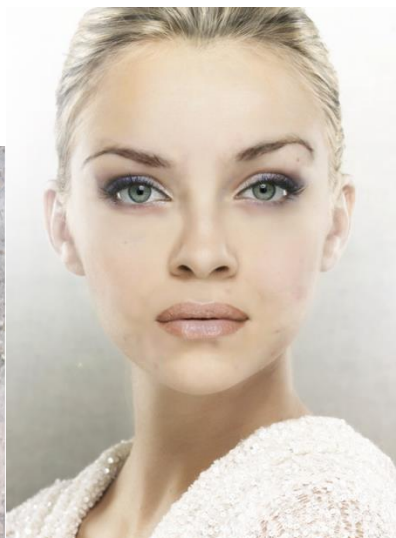


Image P

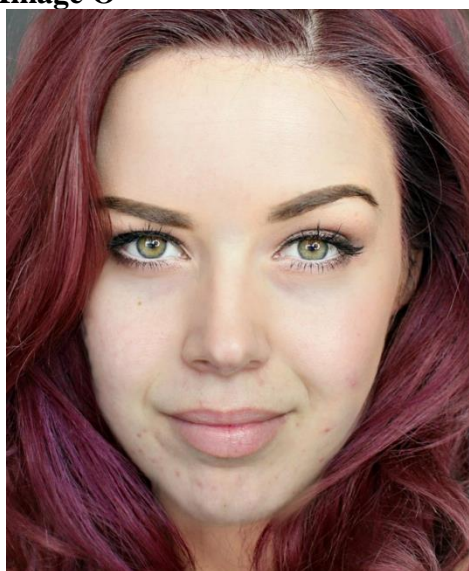


Image Q



Image R



Image S

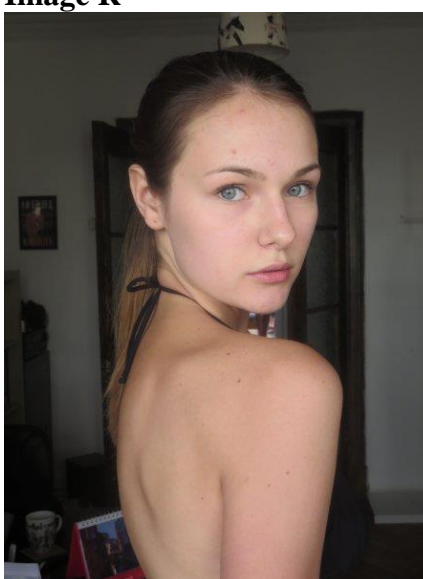


Image T

8.1.6 INTERVIEW #4 NOTES

Participant: EC

Expert: Idealised advertising

Consent form: read and signed.

Interview duration: 45 minutes

Interview Purpose: describe idealised beauty, discuss cosmetic advertising images, describe characteristics of non-idealised faces, feedback on stimuli images and copy

What is an idealised face (Images A-O)? Idealised faces will have clear skin; perfectly even skin tone, no visible (powdery) complexion makeup. The model will be naturally good looking, with big eyes (could be any colour but often blue) visible big lashes, long but not over the top. Her eyebrows will be well maintained, suiting her face shape, not overly plucked though. Any hair colour but tidy and in a particular 'look', even bed head can be idealised as long as it is styled, volumised. Sleek updo is quite glamorous kind of idealised. Straight nose, smallish. Perfect teeth, straight and white. Not too thin lips, or too wide. Hard to explain but an open face, inviting. In terms of race, white is traditionally idealised but half cast beauty is getting attention now. All facial features need to be in proportion, bigger eyes or lips are idealised, but not big foreheads or noses.

Image P is my current idealised image, what can I add or change? Does look very idealised, maybe make her eyes pop a bit more, bigger lashes especially if you choose mascara advertisement.

What is the opposite of idealised look like?

Hair: a little bit frizzy, flyaways, bits sticking out, and normal, non-perfect hair. Maybe having a little bit of baby fringe, like a widows peak. Uneven patches of colour, or little bits of regrowth. Maybe an unhealthy looking pony tail, that looks a little brittle or dry.

Forehead: some spots and freckles, a little bit too big, fines lines and redness

Eyebrows; mono, strays, brushed up out a place a little bit. Not all perfectly plucked. Not well shaped or unevenly shaped. Faded ends, like lighter hair further out, so not even colour.

Eyes: super hooded eyes with small lashes. Maybe brown is less idealised. Wrinkles beside, crow's feet, dark circles or redness, too far apart or together.

Skin: scars, spots, blemishes, birthmarks, freckles – especially on forehead or chin

Nose: wonky, too wide, bulbous, uneven, moustache

Lips: thin, cracked, dry, too long, upper lip spots or hair

Chin: pointing, jutted forwards, sports, stumpy neck

What do you think of images Q and R?

Image Q is nicer, image R might be too un-idealised to even put on an ad, but maybe if you make eyes the bigger feature and toned down skin a little bit. I think focus more on lots and lots of little imperfections to create an overall impression of less than perfect without being able to pinpoint exactly what it is that is no ideal.

APPENDICES

Discussing wording examples. Concealer is looking good, maybe try to use more lingo. Mascara approach needs more bang I think, it's on the right track. Mascara avoid is good, I really like 'lashes lacking'.

Review: Good easy, lots to work on with non-idealised image and continue working on wording

Images A-H were identical to those discussed in previous interviews.



Image I



Image J



Image K



Image L



Image M



Image N

APPENDICES



Image O



Image P



Image Q

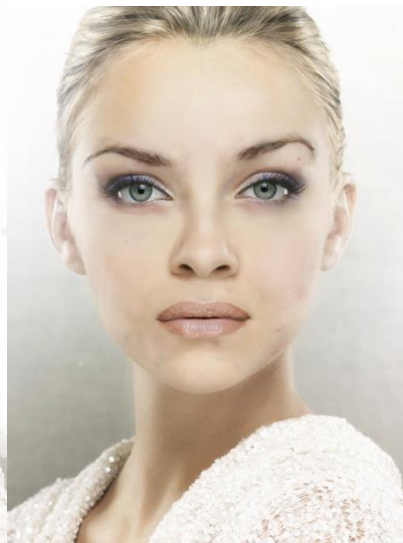


Image R



Image S



Image T

Concealer:

Vp highlights your cheekbones and brightens your eyes

VP concealer reduces puffiness and hides dark circles around your eyes

Mascara

VP maraca for thick lashes and glamorous eyes

VP luscious mascara; don't leave your lashes lacking

8.2 ADVERTISEMENT MODEL

8.2.1 ORIGINAL IMAGE



8.2.2 IDEALISED MODEL PRE-STUDY #1



8.2.3 NON-IDEALISED MODEL PRE-STUDY #1



8.2.4 ADJUSTED IDEALISED MODEL



8.2.5 ADJUSTED IDEALISED MODEL



8.3 PRE STUDY #1

8.3.1 INFORMATION AND CONSENT

Department of Management, Marketing and Entrepreneurship
Telephone: +64 3 364 2987
Email: rachael.worsley@pg.canterbury.ac.nz



Information and Consent

You have been invited to participate as a subject in a research project investigating cosmetic product use and advertising. The aim of this project is to discover and understand why people use the makeup they do and how advertising might be able to influence this.

Your involvement in this research will be to participate in a quick online survey which should take approximately **5-10 minutes**. You will view an image and be asked some easy questions about what you saw. Then you will answer questions about a product description.

Your name and identity will not accompany your survey response and you will remain completely confidential. You have the right to withdraw from the project at any time, including withdrawal of information provided. Any uncompleted surveys will be discarded. The results will be stored on University of Canterbury servers for 5 years.

The results of this survey may be published however you may be assured of the complete confidentiality of all data collected and the identity of all participants will remain anonymous. This project is being carried out as a requirement for my Master's in Marketing at the University of Canterbury, New Zealand. If you have any concerns about this project please discuss them with my supervisor, Paul Ballantine, who can be contacted at paul.ballantine@canterbury.ac.nz

This project has been reviewed and approved by the University of Canterbury Human Ethics Committee low risk process.

Thank you for your time!

Warm regards,

Researcher: Rachael Worsley (rachael.worsley@pg.canterbury.ac.nz)

Supervisor: Paul Ballantine (paul.ballantine@canterbury.ac.nz)

Consent Form

By clicking "yes" below, you confirm the following:

- You have read and understood the description of the above-named project in the Information Sheet provided.
- On this basis, you agree to participate as a subject in this project, and consent to the publication of the results of this project with the understanding that your confidentiality will be preserved.
- You understand also that you may withdraw from this project at anytime before survey completion.

☐ Yes, I confirm the above statements and would like to take part in this survey

☐ No thanks

APPENDICES

8.3.2 SCREEN I

To take part in this study you must be a female aged between 18 and 35 years.

☐ No, I am not a female aged between 18 and 35 years old ☐ Yes, I am a female aged between 18 and 35 years old

Have you seen advertising for a cosmetic product (makeup) in the last 12 months?
(Can be magazines, on TV, online, in-store etc.)

☐ Yes
☐ No

NEXT

Progress bar: 25%

APPENDICES

8.3.3 SCREEN II

The image below has been cropped from an advertisement for a new cosmetics brand. Please study the image and then refer to it when answering the following questions.



APPENDICES

Please describe two positive and two negative characteristics of the person in the image

1) Positive characteristic	<input type="text"/>
2) Positive characteristic	<input type="text"/>
1) Negative characteristic	<input type="text"/>
2) Negative characteristic	<input type="text"/>

How do you feel about your own appearance when viewing this image?

- ☐ Very Satisfied
- ☐ Satisfied
- ☐ Somewhat Satisfied
- ☐ Neutral
- ☐ Somewhat Dissatisfied
- ☐ Dissatisfied
- ☐ Very Dissatisfied

NEXT

APPENDICES

8.3.4 SCREEN III

To what extent do you think the model in the advertisement looks like other models who appear in cosmetic advertising ?

Very dissimilar to most cosmetic models | ● ● ● ● ● ● ● | Very similar to other cosmetic models

To what extent do you think the advertisement encourages covering your flaws?

Doesn't encourage covering your flaws | ● ● ● ● ● ● ● | Encourages covering your flaws

To what extent do you think the model represents societal idealized appearance?

Non-idealized | ● ● ● ● ● ● ● | Idealized

To what extent do you think the advertisement encourages enhancing your natural beauty?

Doesn't encourage enhancing your natural beauty | ● ● ● ● ● ● ● | Encourages enhancing your natural beauty

NEXT

■ □


APPENDICES

8.3.5 SCREEN IV

Mascara advertisements often feature catchy messages. Please indicate the extent to which you agree/disagree with the following statements about the phrase **"never leave your lashes lacking"** in an advertisement for mascara.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
The phrase is negative	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The phrase is positive	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The messages makes you fear looking your worst	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
This message makes people feel inferior	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The message is concerned with enhancement	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

NEXT



8.3.6 DEBRIEF

All done! Your responses have been submitted!

Thank you for taking part in this research. Below is a debrief to further explain the contents of the survey you just completed. Again, if you have further questions or concerns about the research you have taken part in please feel free to contact us.


Researcher: Rachael Worsley rachael.worsley@pg.canterbury.ac.nz
Supervisor: Paul Ballantine paul.ballantine@canterbury.ac.nz

Research Title: The Influence of Goal Orientation and Cosmetic Advertising on Cosmetic Product Purchase Intentions

The key purpose of this research is to investigate the interaction of cosmetic advertising with viewers self-esteem, body image, and how this interaction influences purchase intentions. The intention of this project is to establish the consequences of exposure idealized models and explore the use of alternative images and messages.

Everyone who completed this survey was shown one of a variety of advertisements, with different images and advertising copy (the words). The questions you answered will help establish which type of photos and which type of messages create the most interest in products without making people feel bad about themselves. The paragraph you read which asked you to image characteristics of yourself was priming to test if different attitudes towards yourself would impact on how you felt about the advertisement.

I hope the results will help to establish a more ethical way of advertising cosmetic products without highly photoshopped models.



8.4 PRE-STUDY #2

8.4.1 PRE-STUDY #2 RECRUITMENT MESSAGE



APPENDICES

8.4.2 INFORMATION AND CONSENT

Department of Management, Marketing and Entrepreneurship
Telephone: +64 3 364 2987
Email: rachael.worsley@pg.canterbury.ac.nz



Information and Consent

You have been invited to participate as a subject in a research project investigating cosmetic product use and advertising. The aim of this project is to discover and understand why people use the makeup they do and how advertising might be able to influence this.

Your involvement in this research will be to participate in a quick online survey which should take approximately **5-10 minutes**. You will view an image and be asked some easy questions about what you saw. Then you will answer questions about a product description.

Your name and identity will not accompany your survey response and you will remain completely confidential. You have the right to withdraw from the project at any time, including withdrawal of information provided. Any uncompleted surveys will be discarded. The results will be stored on University of Canterbury servers for 5 years.

The results of this survey may be published, however you may be assured of the complete confidentiality of all data collected and the identity of all participants will remain anonymous. This project is being carried out as a requirement for my Master's in Marketing at the University of Canterbury, New Zealand. If you have any concerns about this project please discuss them with my supervisor, Paul Ballantine, who can be contacted at paul.ballantine@canterbury.ac.nz

This project has been reviewed and approved by the University of Canterbury Human Ethics Committee low risk process.

Thank you for your time!

Warm regards,

Researcher: Rachael Worsley (rachael.worsley@pg.canterbury.ac.nz)

Supervisor: Paul Ballantine (paul.ballantine@canterbury.ac.nz)

Consent Form

By clicking "yes" below, you confirm the following:

- You have read and understood the description of the above-named project in the Information Sheet provided.
- On this basis, you agree to participate as a subject in this project, and consent to the publication of the results of this project with the understanding that your confidentiality will be preserved.
- You understand also that you may withdraw from this project at anytime before survey completion.

- ☐ Yes, I confirm the above statements and would like to take part in this survey
- ☐ No thanks

APPENDICES

8.4.3 SCREEN I

To take part in this study you must be a female aged between 18 and 35 years.

☐ No, I am not a female aged between 18 and 35 years old ☐ Yes, I am a female aged between 18 and 35 years old

Have you seen advertising for a cosmetic product (makeup) in the last 12 months?
(Can be magazines, on TV, online, in-store etc.)

☐ Yes
☐ No

NEXT

Progress bar: 10% complete

APPENDICES

8.4.4 SCREEN II

The image below has been cropped from an advertisement for a new cosmetics brand. Please study the image and then refer to it when answering the following questions.



APPENDICES

Please describe two positive and two negative characteristics of the person in the image

1) Positive characteristic	<input type="text"/>
2) Positive characteristic	<input type="text"/>
1) Negative characteristic	<input type="text"/>
2) Negative characteristic	<input type="text"/>

How do you feel about your own appearance when viewing this image?

- ☐ Very Satisfied
- ☐ Satisfied
- ☐ Somewhat Satisfied
- ☐ Neutral
- ☐ Somewhat Dissatisfied
- ☐ Dissatisfied
- ☐ Very Dissatisfied

☐

APPENDICES

8.4.5 SCREEN III

To what extent do you think the model in the advertisement is idealized in comparison to other models who appear in cosmetic advertising?

Less idealized than other models | ● ● ● ● ● ● ● | More idealized than other models

To what extent do you think the advertisement encourages covering your flaws?

Does not encourage covering your flaws | ● ● ● ● ● ● ● | Encourages covering your flaws


To what extent do you think the model represents societal idealized appearance?

Non-idealized | ● ● ● ● ● ● ● | Idealized

To what extent do you think the advertisement encourages unrealistic beauty?

Does not encourage unrealistic beauty | ● ● ● ● ● ● ● | Encourages unrealistic beauty

NEXT



8.4.6 DEBRIEF

All done! Your responses have been submitted!


Thank you for taking part in this research. Below is a debrief to further explain the contents of the survey you just completed. Again, if you have further questions or concerns about the research you have taken part in please feel free to contact us.

Researcher: Rachael Worsley rachael.worsley@pg.canterbury.ac.nz
Supervisor: Paul Ballantine paul.ballantine@canterbury.ac.nz

Research Title: The Influence of Goal Orientation and Cosmetic Advertising on Cosmetic Product Purchase Intentions

The key purpose of this research is to investigate the interaction of cosmetic advertising with viewers self-esteem, body image, and how this interaction influences purchase intentions. The intention of this project is to establish the consequences of exposure idealized models and explore the use of alternative images and messages. Everyone who completed this survey was shown one of a variety of advertisements, with different images and advertising copy (the words). The questions you answered will help establish which type of photos and which type of messages create the most interest in products without making people feel bad about themselves. The paragraph you read which asked you to image characteristics of yourself was priming to test if different attitudes towards yourself would impact on how you felt about the advertisement.

I hope the results will help to establish a more ethical way of advertising cosmetic products without highly photoshopped models.



8.5 PRE-STUDY #3

8.5.1 PRE-STUDY #3 RECRUITMENT MESSAGE



8.5.2 INFORMATION AND CONSENT

Department of Management, Marketing and Entrepreneurship
Telephone: +64 3 364 2987
Email: rachael.worsley@pg.canterbury.ac.nz



Information and Consent

You have been invited to participate as a subject in a research project investigating cosmetic product use and advertising. The aim of this project is to discover and understand why people use the makeup they do and how different frames of mind might be able to influence this.

Your involvement in this research will be to participate in a quick online survey which should take approximately **5 minutes**. You will take part in a visualisation task where you will be asked to visualise characteristics of your appearance.

Your name and identity will not accompany your survey response and you will remain completely confidential. You have the right to withdraw from the project at any time, including withdrawal of information provided. Any uncompleted surveys will be discarded. The results will be stored on University of Canterbury servers for 5 years.

The results of this survey may be published, however you may be assured of the complete confidentiality of all data collected and the identity of all participants will remain anonymous. This project is being carried out as a requirement for my Master's in Marketing at the University of Canterbury, New Zealand. If you have any concerns about this project please discuss them with my supervisor, Paul Ballantine, who can be contacted at paul.ballantine@canterbury.ac.nz

This project has been reviewed and approved by the University of Canterbury Human Ethics Committee low risk process.

Thank you for your time!

Warm regards,

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Supervisor: Paul Ballantine (paul.ballantine@canterbury.ac.nz)

Consent Form

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- On this basis, you agree to participate as a subject in this project, and consent to the publication of the results of this project with the understanding that your confidentiality will be preserved.
- You understand also that you may withdraw from this project at anytime before survey completion.

- ☐ Yes, I confirm the above statements and would like to take part in this survey
- ☐ No thanks

APPENDICES

8.5.3 SCREEN I

To take part in this study you must be a female aged between 18 and 35 years.

No, I am not a female aged between 18 and 35 years old Yes, I am a female aged between 18 and 35 years old

☐ ☐

☐ ☐

NEXT

8.5.4 SCREEN II

Everybody thinks about their appearance to some extent. When doing so we usually have vivid representations of how we might look, especially at important occasions. Often individuals think about what we dread and **don't** want to look like. These visualized dreaded images are called the *feared-self*.

Take a moment to think about the *feared-self* you avoid. It might help to think about this in a particular situation where **not** being this *feared self* is important to you (e.g. social occasion, being with your partner etc.)

In the space below jot down some of the characteristics of that **feared self** you just visualized for yourself. Different people have different appearance characteristics that are important to them so there is no right or wrong answer.

[NEXT](#)


APPENDICES

8.5.5 SCREEN III

Please indicate the extent to which the following statements apply to you after completing the self visualization exercise.

	Not at all true of me currently 1	2	3	4	5	6	Very true of me currently 7
I am anxious that people will notice my flaws.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I imagine how I feel when people notice my best features.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I can easily imagine ways to achieve my desired appearance.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is important to me I don't look my worst, especially at special occasions.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am better at imagining what I don't want to look like (than what I do want to look like).	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I think about ways I can prevent myself from looking unattractive.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am more oriented toward highlighting my best features than covering my flaws.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am focused on what I desire to look like.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

NEXT



APPENDICES

8.5.6 DEBRIEF

Thank you for taking part in this research. Below is a debrief to further explain the contents of the survey you just completed. Again, if you have further questions or concerns about the research you have taken part in please get in contact.

Researcher: Rachael Worsley rachael.worsley@pg.canterbury.ac.nz

Supervisor: Paul Ballantine paul.ballantine@canterbury.ac.nz

Research Title: The Influence of Goal Orientation and Cosmetic Advertising on Cosmetic Product Purchase Intentions

The key purpose of this research is to investigate the effect of cosmetic advertising on viewers self-esteem, body image, and purchase intentions. The intention of this project is to establish the consequences of exposure idealized models and explore the use off alternative images and messages. This prestudy was to establish the effects of the visualisation task you were asked to complete. It is hoped that different types of visualisation tasks will help protect individuals who experience lowered body image after viewing idealized models.

Survey Powered By [Qualtrics](#)

8.6 FINAL ADVERTISEMENTS

8.6.1 IDEALISED MODEL: DESIRED REFERENCE



8.6.2 IDEALISED MODEL: UNDESIRE REFERENCE



8.6.3 NON-IDEALISED MODEL: DESIRED MESSAGE



8.6.4 NON-IDEALISED MODEL: UNDESIRE MESSAGE



8.6.5 No Model: DESIRED REFERENCE






8.6.6 No Model: UNDESIRED REFERENCE



8.7 FULL PRE-TEST

8.7.1 PRE-TEST RECRUITMENT EMAIL

Paul Ballantine




Actions ▾

To: educ101s2@course.canterbury.ac.nz

Cc: [Rachael Worsley](#)

Inbox

04 December 2014 18:36

Hi, my name is Rachael and I want to give you free money!

I need **female** participants aged between **18 and 35** to answer questions about a **cosmetics advertisement** and complete a few personality measures. The survey should take about **10-15 minutes** to complete.

The important bit is - by providing your email address you enter the draw to win a **\$100 gift voucher**. There are **five** vouchers to be won!

If you are interested in participating, please follow the link: http://canterbury.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_eLs7DGxH29bEOG1

If you would like to know more about me and this study I have included some additional information below ☺

Kind regards,

Rachael Worsley

I am currently completing my Masters of Commerce in Marketing and I need participants to complete an online survey as part of the research required for my thesis.

My study is assessing the role of cosmetics advertising in creating purchase intentions and how individual characteristics contribute to cosmetics use and purchase. The questionnaire has three parts, firstly an imagination task where you will be asked to brainstorm some ideas about yourself. Next you will view an advertisement for a relatively new cosmetics company and answer some quick questions about that. Finally there are a few personality type tests to complete, some of which you may have seen before!

This project is being carried out as a requirement for a Masters of Commerce degree at the University of Canterbury, New Zealand, under the supervision of Associate Professor Paul Ballantine who can be contacted at paul.ballantine@canterbury.ac.nz.

This project has been reviewed and **approved** by the University of Canterbury Human Ethics Committee low risk process. Participants should address any complaints to The Chair, Human Ethics Committee, University of Canterbury, Private Bag 4800, Christchurch (human-ethics@canterbury.ac.nz).

If you have any queries or concerns please feel free to contact me or my supervisor

Researcher: rachael.worsley@pg.canterbury.ac.nz

Supervisor: paul.ballantine@canterbury.ac.nz

APPENDICES

8.7.2 INFORMATION AND CONSENT

Department of Management, Marketing and Entrepreneurship
Telephone: +64 3 364 2987
Email: rachael.worsley@pg.canterbury.ac.nz



Information and Consent

You have been invited to participate as a subject in a research project investigating cosmetic product use and advertising. The aim of this project is to assess the role of advertising in making purchase decisions.

You can go in the draw to win 1 of 5 \$100 gift vouchers.

Your involvement in this research will be to participate in an online survey which should take approximately **10-15 minutes**. You will view a draft advertisement and be asked a few questions about the model and the product pictured.

In addition, you will be asked to provide some basic demographics, answer some questions about your personality, how you feel about your appearance and your current cosmetics use.

At the completion of the survey you will be given the opportunity to enter your contact details into the prize draw. Your name and identity will not accompany your survey response and you will remain completely confidential. You have the right to withdraw from the project at any time, including withdrawal of information provided. Any uncompleted surveys will be discarded. The results will be stored on University of Canterbury servers for 5 years. Winners will be contacted to arrange claiming their prize.

The results of this survey may be published however you may be assured of the complete confidentiality of all data collected and the identity of all participants will remain anonymous. This project is being carried out as a requirement for my Master's in Marketing at the University of Canterbury, New Zealand. If you have any concerns about this project please discuss them with my supervisor, Paul Ballantine, who can be contacted at paul.ballantine@canterbury.ac.nz

This project has been reviewed and approved by the University of Canterbury Human Ethics Committee low risk process.

Thank you for your time!

Warm regards,

Researcher: Rachael Worsley (rachael.worsley@pg.canterbury.ac.nz)

Supervisor: Paul Ballantine (paul.ballantine@canterbury.ac.nz)

Consent Form

By clicking "yes" below, you confirm the following:

- You have read and understood the description of the above-named project in the Information Sheet provided.
- On this basis, you agree to participate as a subject in this project, and consent to the publication of the results of this project with the understanding that your confidentiality will be preserved.
- You understand also that you may withdraw from this project at anytime before survey completion.

Yes, I confirm the above statements and would like to take part in this survey

No thanks

APPENDICES

8.7.3 SCREEN I

To take part in this study you must be a female aged between 18 and 35 years.

No, I am not a female aged between 18 and 35 years old

Yes, I am a female aged between 18 and 35 years old


NEXT

8.7.4 SCREEN II

Everybody thinks about their appearance to some extent. When doing so we usually have vivid representations of how we might look, especially at important occasions. Often individuals think about what we *hope* to look like. These visualized desired images are called the *hoped-for-self*.

Take a moment to think about the *hoped-for-self* you aspire to look like. It might help to think about this in a particular situation where being this *hoped-for-self* is important to you (e.g. social occasion, being with your partner etc.)

In the space below jot down some of the characteristics of that ***hoped for self*** you just visualized for yourself. Different people have different appearance characteristics that are important to them so there is no right or wrong answer.



NEXT

APPENDICES

8.7.5 Screen III

Please indicate the extent to which the following statements apply to you **after completing the self visualization exercise**.

	Not at all true of me currently 1	2	3	4	5	6	Very true of me currently 7
I am anxious that people will notice my flaws.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I think about ways I can prevent myself from looking unattractive.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am better at imagining what I don't want to look like (than what I do want to look like).	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am more oriented toward highlighting my best features than covering my flaws.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I imagine how I feel when people notice my best features.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is important to me I don't look my worst, especially at special occasions.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am focused on what I desire to look like.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I can easily imagine ways to achieve my desired appearance.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

NEXT

APPENDICES

8.7.6 SCREEN IV

You will now see a draft advertisement for a new mascara which emerging cosmetics brand- *Vasili Paspal* is bringing to your country in the next few months.

Please take your time to have a look at the advert, which may appear in magazines or websites. After you select next there are some brief questions about the advert and the product.

The image can take a few seconds to load.



APPENDICES

8.7.7 SCREEN V

Please indicate the probability that you will **try** Lash-ious Mascara when it becomes available in your area.

Unlikely	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Likely
Possible	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Impossible
Probable	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Inprobable

Please indicate what you **thought** about the advertisement.

I feel negatively toward the advertisement	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	I feel positively toward the advertisement
I dislike the advertisement	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	I like the advertisement
The advertisement is good	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	The advertisement is bad
I react favorably to the advertisement	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	I react unfavorably to the advertisement

NEXT

APPENDICES

8.7.8 SCREEN VI

Please indicate what you thought **about the model** in the advertisement.

Does not encourage covering your flaws	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Encourages covering your flaws
Less idealized than other models	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	More idealized than other models
Does not encourage unrealistic beauty	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Encourages unrealistic beauty
Non-idealized	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Idealized

Please indicate the extent to which you agree/disagree with the following statements about the phrase **"always have luscious lashes"** in the advertisement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
The phrase makes people think about their flaws	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The phrase encourages people to look their best	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The phrase is negative	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The phrase makes me think about what I would like to look like	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The phrase is positive	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The phrase makes people fear looking inferior to others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

NEXT

APPENDICES

8.7.9 SCREEN VII

The final aspect of this survey is a series of questions about yourself.

Please indicate the extend to which you agree/disagree with the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I do things to increase my physical strength.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is important that I always look good.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I do things to keep physically fit.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I check my appearance in the mirror whenever I can.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I like the way I look without my clothes.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My body is sexually appealing.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

NEXT

APPENDICES

8.7.10 SCREEN VIII

Please indicate the extent to which you agree/disagree with the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
At times I think I am no good at all.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel that I do not have much to be proud of.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I take a positive attitude toward myself.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel that I have a number of good qualities.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am able to do things as well as most other people.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I wish I could have more respect for myself.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I certainly feel useless at times.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

NEXT

APPENDICES

8.7.11 SCREEN IX

Please indicate your general **everyday** use of the following cosmetics.

	Never	Rarely	Once in a while	About half the time	Often	Most of the time	Always
Face Makeup (e.g. concealer, foundation, powder, BB cream).	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Lip color (Lipstick, lip liner, colored gloss)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Mascara	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Eye Liner	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Eye Shadow	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please indicate how your cosmetics use differs in the following situations **compared to** your normal **everyday** use.

	Significantly Less	Less	Somewhat Less	About the Same	Somewhat More	More	Significantly More
Night out with males and females	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Shopping with female friends	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Exercising	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Spending the day at home	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
On a date	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

NEXT

APPENDICES

8.7.12 SCREEN X

Please indicate your **satisfaction** with each of the following areas of your face.

	Dislike Extremely	Dislike Very Much	Dislike Slightly	Neither Like nor Dislike	Like Slightly	Like Very Much	Like Extremely
Eyes	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Eyebrows	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Lips	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Cheeks/cheekbones	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Skin/complexion	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Overall face	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please indicate the **importance** of each of the following areas of your face to your **overall appearance**.

	Not at all Important	Very Unimportant	Somewhat Unimportant	Neither Important nor Unimportant	Somewhat Important	Very Important	Extremely Important
Eyes	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Eyebrows	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Lips	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Cheeks/cheekbones	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Skin/complexion	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Overall face	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

NEXT

APPENDICES

8.7.13 SCREEN XI

To what extent to you agree/disagree with the following statements?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I would like my body to look like the models who appear in magazines.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I wish I looked like the models in music videos.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I compare my appearance to the appearance of people in magazines.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I compare my body to the bodies of TV and movie stars.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I compare my body to the bodies of people who appear in magazines.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would like my body to look like the people who are in the movies.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would like my body to look like the people who are on TV.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I compare my appearance to the appearance of TV and movie stars.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

NEXT

APPENDICES

8.7.14 SCREEN XII

Please indicate how often you partake in the behavior described when you see **female models in advertisements**?

	Never	Rarely	Once in a while	About half the time	Often	Most of the time	Always
How often to you compare your eating habits to theirs?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
How often to you compare yourself to them in general?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
How often to you compare your career success to theirs?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
How often to you compare your intelligence to theirs?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
How often to you compare your happiness to theirs?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
How often to you compare your popularity to theirs?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
How often to you compare your physical appearance to theirs?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

NEXT

APPENDICES

8.7.15 SCREEN XIII

Nearly there, just some quick demographics!

What is your gender?

Female

Male

Please indicate the **highest** level of education completed.

Grammar School

High School or equivalent

Vocational/Technical School (2 year)

Some College / University

College / University Graduate

Master's Degree (MS)

Doctoral Degree (PhD)

Professional Degree (MD, JD, etc.)

Other

APPENDICES

What is your current age?

Less than 18

18 to 20

21 to 23

24 to 26

27 to 29

30 to 32

33 to 35

over 35

What is your current marital status?

Divorced

Living with my partner

Married

Separated

Single

Widowed

Rather not say

APPENDICES

Where do you currently **live** most of the time?

United States of America

Canada

Great Britain

Australia

New Zealand

Other

Please select the option which **best** describes your **current employment**

Student

Full Time Working

Part Time Working

Retired

Unemployed

APPENDICES

Please indicate the option which **best** describes your **income** in relation to others in the population

Rather not say

lower third

middle third

upper third

unsure

NEXT

APPENDICES

8.7.16 SCREEN XIV

Have you used cosmetic products (makeup) in the last 3 months?

Yes

No

Have you seen advertising for a cosmetic product (makeup) in the last 3 months. Can be magazines, on TV, online, in-store etc.

Yes

No

Unsure

NEXT

8.7.17 SCREEN XV

If you would like to enter in the prize draw for one of the \$100 vouchers please enter your **email address** below. If you don't want to enter, please just select "Next"

Please note: your contact details will remain totally **confidential** and will not be recorded alongside your responses.

Winners will be contacted via email to arrange collection of their prize.

NEXT

APPENDICES

8.7.18 DEBRIEF



All done! Your responses have been submitted!

Thank you for taking part in this research. Below is a debrief to further explain the contents of the survey you just completed. Again, if you have further questions or concerns about the research you have taken part in please feel free to contact us.

Researcher: Rachael Worsley rachael.worsley@pg.canterbury.ac.nz

Supervisor: Paul Ballantine paul.ballantine@canterbury.ac.nz

Research Title: The Influence of Goal Orientation and Cosmetic Advertising on Cosmetic Product Purchase Intentions

The key purpose of this research is to investigate the interaction of cosmetic advertising with viewers self-esteem, body image, and how this interaction influences purchase intentions. The intention of this project is to establish the consequences of exposure idealized models and explore the use of alternative images and messages.

Everyone who completed this survey was shown one of a variety of advertisements, with different images and advertising copy (the words). The questions you answered will help establish which type of photos and which type of messages create the most interest in products without making people feel bad about themselves. The paragraph you read which asked you to image characteristics of yourself was priming to test if different attitudes towards yourself would impact on how you felt about the advertisement.

I hope the results will help to establish a more ethical way of advertising cosmetic products without highly photoshopped models.

8.8 FINAL EXPERIMENT

8.8.1 MECHANICAL TURK HIT

Edit Project

This is how your HIT will look to Mechanical Turk Workers.


1 Enter Properties
2 Design Layout
3 Preview and Finish

Project Name: Paul Ballantine
This name is not displayed to Workers.

University of Canterbury - Female 18-35 only Cosmetic Study
Requester: Mturk Data2
Reward: \$2.500 per HIT
HITs available: 0
Duration: 1 Hours
Qualifications Required: Location is one of CA, GB, US , HIT Approval Rate (%) for all Requesters' HITs greater than or equal to 98 , Number of HITs Approved greater than 5000

HIT Preview

Instructions READ!



Expected time is 10 minutes and requires careful thought and attention to all questions.

Female participants only - aged 18-35

DO NOT SKIM, READ EVERYTHING! We only want the best workers who read and follow instructions, failure to do so will lead to rejections. We abide by the [Dynamo Guidelines for Academic Requesters](#). If you need to contact someone about this hit use [Mturk Data](#), if you need to contact someone about the survey please use [Paul Ballantine - University of Canterbury](#)

Make sure to leave this window open as you complete the survey. Have your worker ID ready to input in the survey.

Survey link: http://canterbury.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_bl35X9i6k9hL2QJ

Survey Code:

Submit

8.8.2 HUMAN ETHICS APPROVAL



HUMAN ETHICS COMMITTEE

Secretary, Lynda Griffioen
Email: human-ethics@canterbury.ac.nz

Ref: HEC 2014/66/LR

29 September 2014

Rachael Worsley
Department of Management, Marketing & Entrepreneurship
UNIVERSITY OF CANTERBURY

Dear Rachael

Thank you for forwarding your Human Ethics Committee Low Risk application for your research proposal "The influence of goal orientation and cosmetic advertising on cosmetic product purchase intentions".

I am pleased to advise that this application has been reviewed and I confirm support of the Department's approval for this project.

Please note that this approval is subject to the incorporation of the amendments you have provided in your email of 26 September 2014.

With best wishes for your project.

Yours sincerely

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'L. MacDonald'.

Lindsey MacDonald
Chair, Human Ethics Committee

APPENDICES

8.8.3 INFORMATION AND CONSENT

Department of Management, Marketing and Entrepreneurship
Telephone: +84 3 384 2987
Email: rachael.worsley@pg.canterbury.ac.nz

Information and Consent

You have been invited to participate as a subject in a research project investigating cosmetic advertising. The aim of this project is to assess the role of advertising in making purchase decisions.

At the completion of this survey you will be given a payment code for Mechanical Turk.

Your involvement in this research will be to participate in an online survey which should take approximately **10-15 minutes**. You will complete a task describing aspects of yourself. Then, you will be shown a draft advertisement and be asked a few questions about components of the ad. In addition, you will be asked to provide some basic demographics, answer some questions about your personality, how you feel about your appearance and your current cosmetics use.

Your name and identity will not accompany your survey response and you will remain completely confidential. You have the right to withdraw from the project at any time, including withdrawal of information provided. Any uncompleted surveys will be discarded. The results will be stored on University of Canterbury servers for 5 years.

The results of this survey may be published however you may be assured of the complete confidentiality of all data collected and the identity of all participants will remain anonymous. This project is being carried out as a requirement for my Master's in Marketing at the University of Canterbury, New Zealand. If you have any concerns about this project please discuss them with my supervisor, Paul Ballantine, who can be contacted at paul.ballantine@canterbury.ac.nz.

This project has been reviewed and *approved* by the University of Canterbury Human Ethics Committee low risk process.

Thank you for your time!

Warm regards,

Researcher: Rachael Worsley (rachael.worsley@pg.canterbury.ac.nz)

Supervisor: Paul Ballantine (paul.ballantine@canterbury.ac.nz)

Consent Form

By clicking "yes" below, you confirm the following:

- You have read and understood the description of the research in the Information Sheet provided.
- On this basis, you agree to participate as a subject in this research, and consent to the publication of the results of this project with the understanding that your confidentiality will be preserved.
- You understand also that you may withdraw from this project at anytime before survey completion.

Yes, I confirm the above statements and would like to take part in this survey

No thanks

APPENDICES

8.8.4 SCREEN I

To take part in this study you must be a female aged between 18 and 35 years.

No, I am not a female aged between 18 and 35 years old

Yes, I am a female aged between 18 and 35 years old

NEXT

APPENDICES

8.8.5 SCREEN II

In order to create products and advertisements which generate interest, it is important new cosmetic brands understand what motivates potential consumers. The following task will assist developers in producing products which are suited to their possible customers.

Timing

These page timer metrics will not be displayed to the recipient.

First Click	0 seconds
Last Click	0 seconds
Page Submit	0 seconds
Click Count	0 clicks

Everybody thinks about their appearance to some extent. When doing so we usually have vivid representations of how we might look, especially at important occasions. Often individuals think about what we dread and **don't** want to look like. These visualized dreaded images are called the *feared-self*.

Take a moment to think about the *feared-self* you avoid. It might help to think about this in a particular situation where **not** being this *feared self* is important to you (e.g. social occasion, being with your partner etc.)

In the space below jot down some of the characteristics of that **feared self** you just visualized for yourself. Different people have different appearance characteristics that are important to them so there is no right or wrong answer. Please note that you need to enter at least 100 characters of text.

NEXT

APPENDICES

8.8.6 Screen III

Please answer the following questions about **the imagined self** you just described.

Unattractive	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Attractive
Desirable	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Undesirable
Positive	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Negative
Better than me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Worse than me
Bad	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Good

NEXT

APPENDICES

8.8.7 SCREEN IV

You will now see a draft advertisement for a new mascara which emerging cosmetics brand- *Vasili Paspal* is bringing to your country in the next few months.

Please take your time to have a look at the advert, which may appear in magazines or websites. After you select next there are some brief questions about the advert and the product.

The image can take a few seconds to load.

Timing

These page timer metrics will not be displayed to the recipient.

First Click	12.419 seconds
Last Click	12.419 seconds
Page Submit	0 seconds
Click Count	1 clicks



NEXT

APPENDICES

8.8.8 SCREEN V

Please indicate the probability that you will **try** Lash-ious Mascara when it becomes available in your area.

Unlikely	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Likely
Possible	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Impossible
Probable	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Inprobable

Please indicate what you **thought** about the advertisement.

I feel negatively toward the advertisement	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	I feel positively toward the advertisement
I dislike the advertisement	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	I like the advertisement
The advertisement is good	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	The advertisement is bad
I react favorably to the advertisement	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	I react unfavorably to the advertisement

NEXT

APPENDICES

8.8.9 SCREEN VI

Please indicate what you thought **about the model** in the advertisement.

Does not encourage covering your flaws	<input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/>	Encourages covering your flaws
Less idealized than other models	<input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/>	More idealized than other models
Does not encourage unrealistic beauty	<input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/>	Encourages unrealistic beauty
Non-idealized	<input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/>	Idealized

Please indicate the extent to which you agree/disagree with the following statements about the phrase **"always have luscious lashes"** in the advertisement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
The phrase makes people think about their flaws	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The phrase encourages people to look their best	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The phrase is negative	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The phrase makes me think about what I would like to look like	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The phrase is positive	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The phrase makes people fear looking inferior to others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

NEXT

APPENDICES

8.8.10 SCREEN VII

The final aspect of this survey is a series of questions about yourself.

Please indicate the extend to which you agree/disagree with the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I do things to increase my physical strength.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is important that I always look good.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I do things to keep physically fit.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I check my appearance in the mirror whenever I can.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I like the way I look without my clothes.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My body is sexually appealing.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

NEXT

APPENDICES

8.8.11 SCREEN VIII

Please indicate the extent to which you agree/disagree with the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
At times I think I am no good at all.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I take a positive attitude toward myself.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am able to do things as well as most other people.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel that I do not have much to be proud of.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I certainly feel useless at times.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel that I have a number of good qualities.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I wish I could have more respect for myself.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

NEXT

APPENDICES

8.8.12 SCREEN IX

Please indicate your general **everyday** use of the following cosmetics.

	Never	Rarely	Once in a while	About half the time	Often	Most of the time	Always
Face Makeup (e.g. concealer, foundation, powder, BB cream).	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Lip color (Lipstick, lip liner, colored gloss)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Mascara	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Eye Liner	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Eye Shadow	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please indicate how your cosmetics use differs in the following situations **compared to** your normal **everyday** use.

	Significantly Less	Less	Somewhat Less	About the Same	Somewhat More	More	Significantly More
Night out with males and females	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Shopping with female friends	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Exercising	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Spending the day at home	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
On a date	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

NEXT

APPENDICES

8.8.13 SCREEN X

Please indicate your **satisfaction** with each of the following areas of your face.

	Dislike Extremely	Dislike Very Much	Dislike Slightly	Neither Like nor Dislike	Like Slightly	Like Very Much	Like Extremely
Eyes	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Eyebrows	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Lips	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Cheeks/cheekbones	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Skin/complexion	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Overall face	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please indicate the **importance** of each of the following areas of your face to your **overall appearance**.

	Not at all Important	Very Unimportant	Somewhat Unimportant	Neither Important nor Unimportant	Somewhat Important	Very Important	Extremely Important
Eyes	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Eyebrows	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Lips	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Cheeks/cheekbones	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Skin/complexion	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Overall face	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

NEXT

APPENDICES

8.8.14 SCREEN XI

To what extent to you agree/disagree with the following statements?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I compare my body to the bodies of TV and movie stars.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would like my body to look like the people who are on TV.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I compare my body to the bodies of people who appear in magazines.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would like my body to look like the models who appear in magazines.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If you are reading this please select strongly agree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I compare my appearance to the appearance of people in magazines.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I wish I looked like the models in music videos.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I compare my appearance to the appearance of TV and movie stars.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would like my body to look like the people who are in the movies.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

NEXT

APPENDICES

8.8.15 SCREEN XII

Please indicate how often you partake in the behavior described when you see **female models in advertisements**?

	Never	Rarely	Once in a while	About half the time	Often	Most of the time	Always
How often to you compare your eating habits to theirs?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
How often to you compare yourself to them in general?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
How often to you compare your career success to theirs?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
How often to you compare your intelligence to theirs?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
How often to you compare your happiness to theirs?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
How often to you compare your popularity to theirs?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
How often to you compare your physical appearance to theirs?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

NEXT

8.8.16 SCREEN XIII

Nearly there, just some quick demographics!

Please enter your Mechanical Turk Worker ID in the box below.

What is your gender?

Female

Male

APPENDICES

Please indicate the **highest** level of education completed.

Grammar School

High School or equivalent

Vocational/Technical School (2 year)

Some College / University

College / University Graduate

Master's Degree (MS)

Doctoral Degree (PhD)

Professional Degree (MD, JD, etc.)

Other

APPENDICES

What is your current age?

Less than 18

18 to 20

21 to 23

24 to 26

27 to 29

30 to 32

33 to 35

over 35

What is your current marital status?

Divorced

Living with my partner

Married

Separated

Single

Widowed

Rather not say

APPENDICES

Where do you currently **live** most of the time?

United States of America

Canada

Great Britain

Australia

New Zealand

Other

Please select the option which **best** describes your **current employment**

Student

Full Time Working

Part Time Working

Retired

Unemployed

APPENDICES

Please indicate the option which **best** describes your **income** in relation to others in the population

Rather not say

lower third

middle third

upper third

unsure

NEXT

APPENDICES

8.8.17 SCREEN XIV

Have you used cosmetic products (makeup) in the last 3 months?

Yes

No

Have you seen advertising for a cosmetic product (makeup) in the last 3 months. Can be magazines, on TV, online, in-store etc.

Yes

No

Unsure

NEXT

APPENDICES

8.8.18 DEBRIEF



Thank you! Your responses have been submitted.

Thank you for taking part in this research. Below is a debrief to further explain the contents of the survey you just completed. Again, if you have further questions or concerns about the research you have taken part in please feel free to contact us.

Researcher: Rachael Worsley rachael.worsley@pg.canterbury.ac.nz

Supervisor: Paul Ballantine paul.ballantine@canterbury.ac.nz

Research Title: The Influence of Goal Orientation and Cosmetic Advertising on Cosmetic Product Purchase Intentions

The purpose of this research is to investigate the interaction of cosmetic advertising with viewers appearance goals and to understand how variations of these factors can influence purchase intentions.

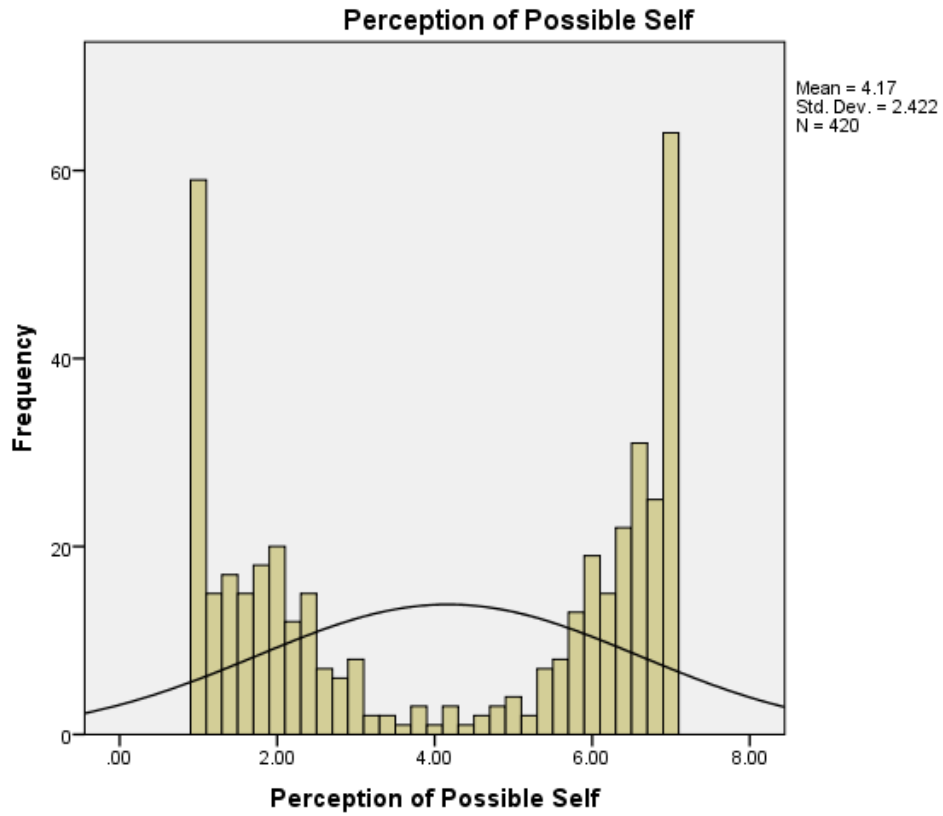
Everyone who participated in this survey engaged in one of two visualisation tasks, either describing their ideal appearance or their feared appearance. This task acted as a temporary prime designed to increase the saliency of either positive or negative self-characteristics. This mind-set may influence the way in which an advertisement is perceived. Next you were shown one of a variety of advertisements, with different images and advertising copy (the words). Some people saw highly photoshopped, perfected model, while others saw a more natural, slightly flawed model. Another group saw no model and were presented an advertisement with only the product shown. The questions you answered will help establish which types of images and which messages create the most interest in products. Finally the information about your cosmetics use and personality measures were to determine if there were other factors which played a role in the evaluation of the advertisements.

I hope the results will help to establish a more ethical way of advertising cosmetic products without highly photoshopped, unrealistic models.

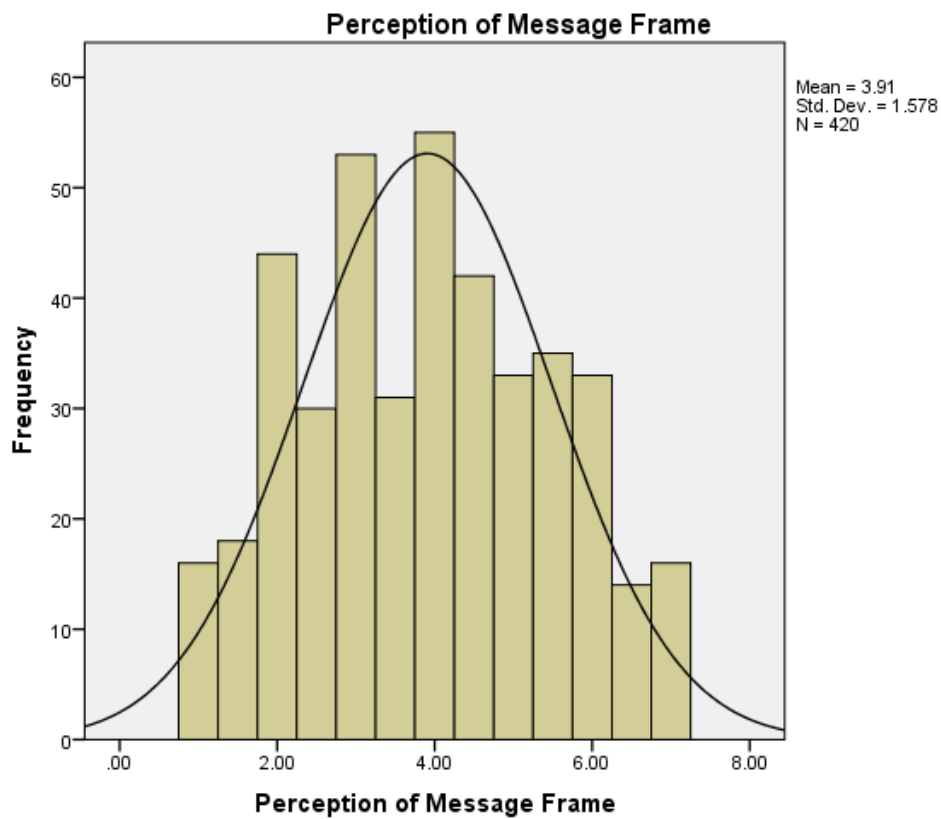
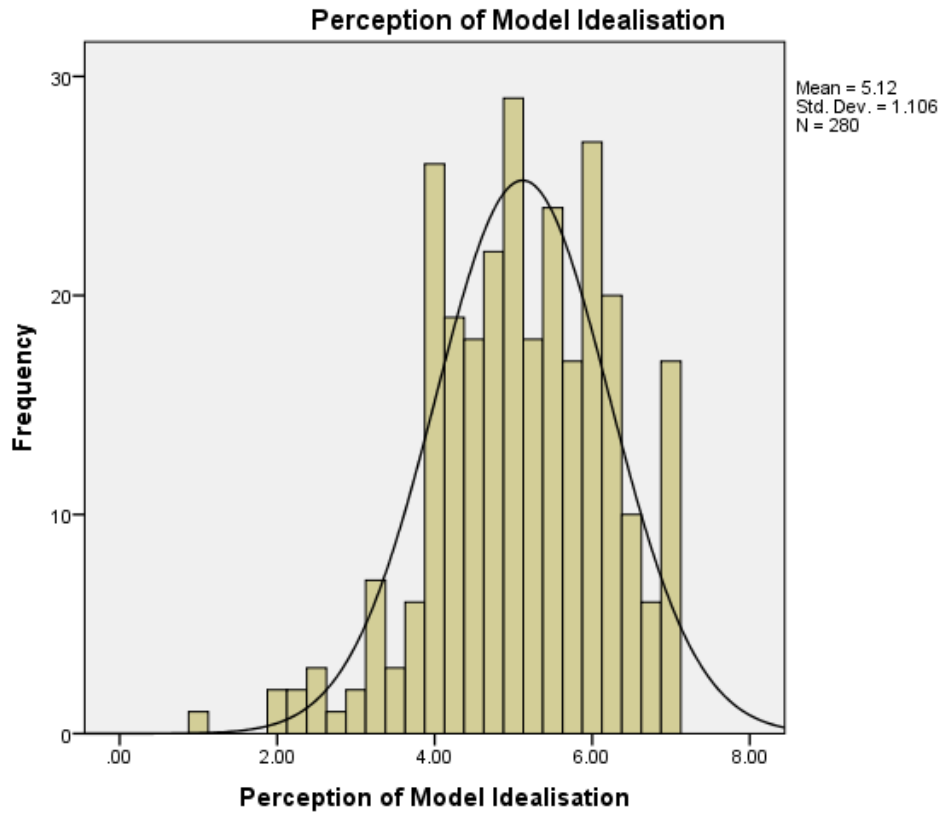
APPENDICES

8.9 HISTOGRAMS FOR INDEPENDENT, DEPENDANT AND COVARIATE MEASURES

8.9.1 INDEPENDENT MEASURES

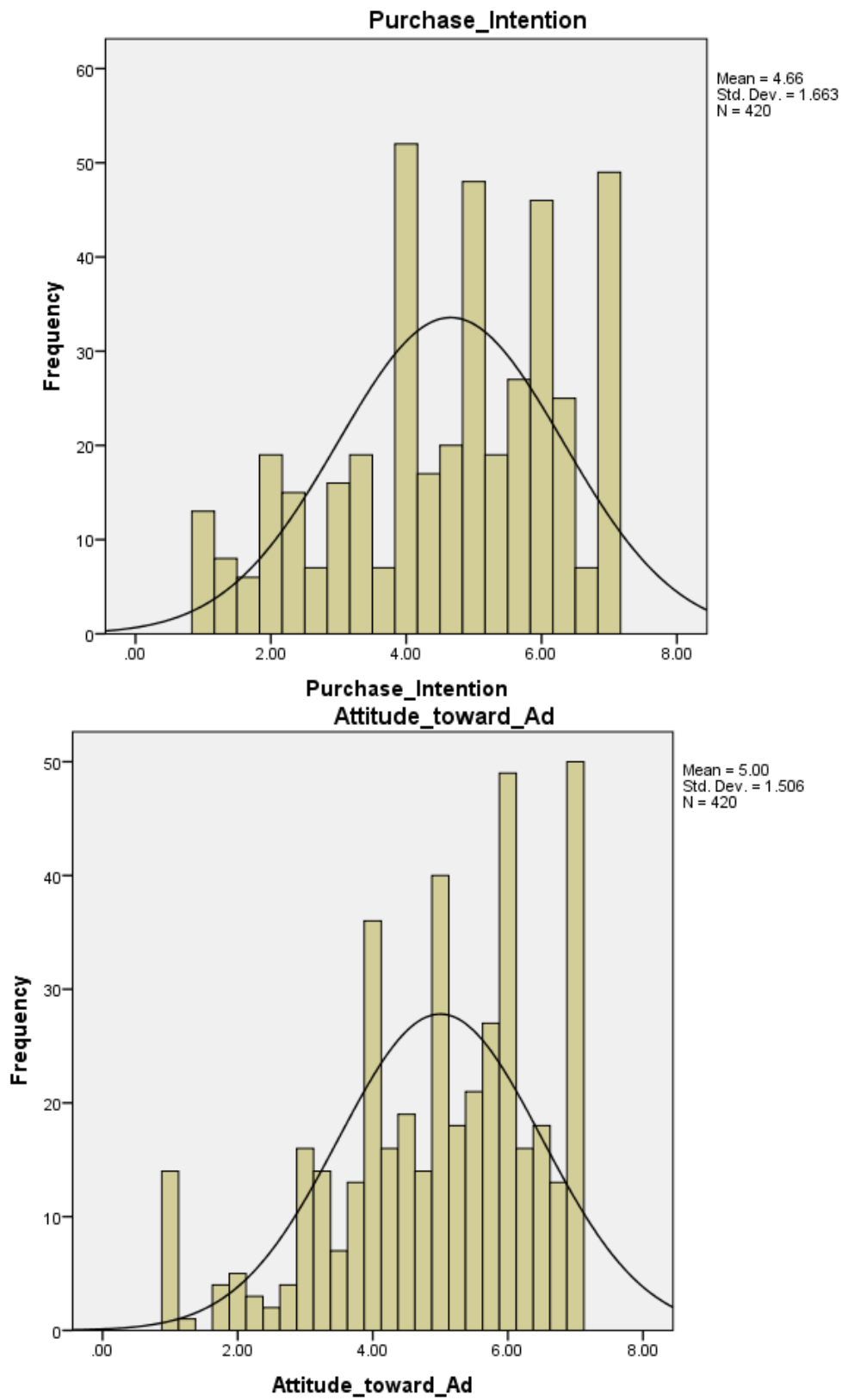


APPENDICES



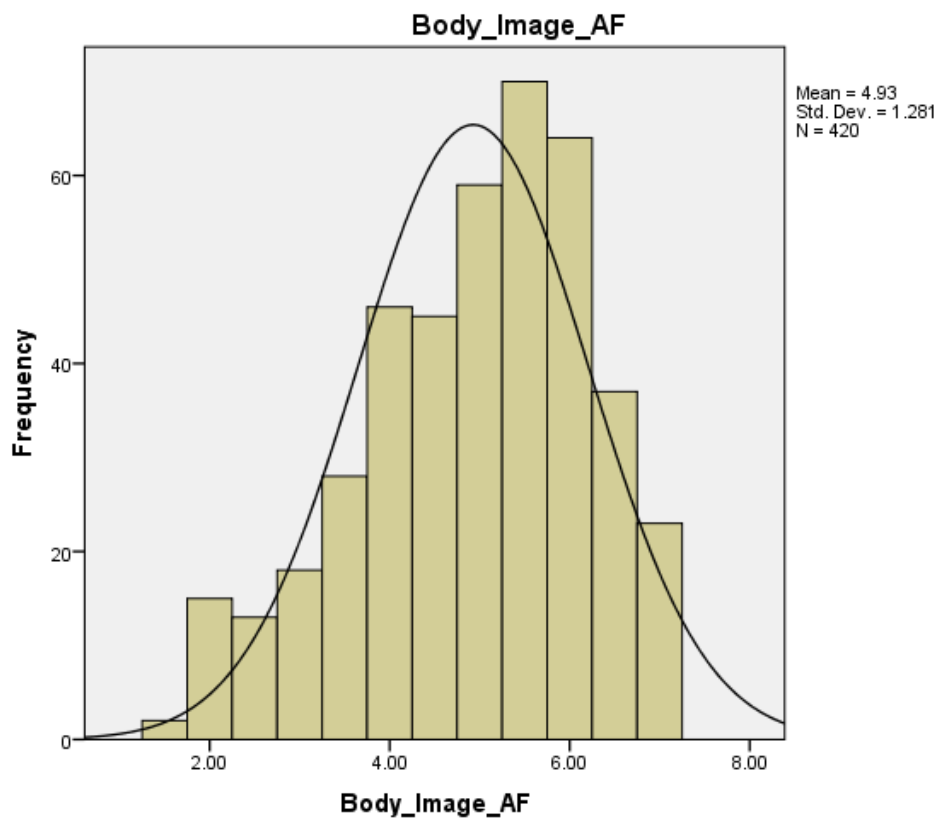
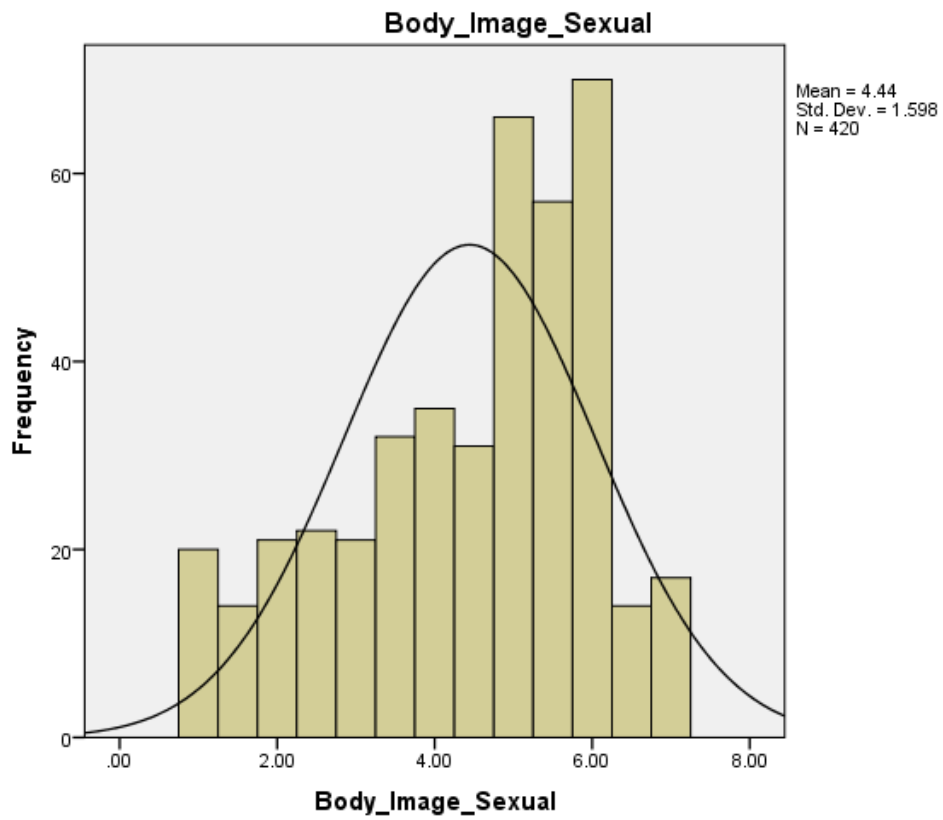
APPENDICES

8.9.2 DEPENDANT MEASURES

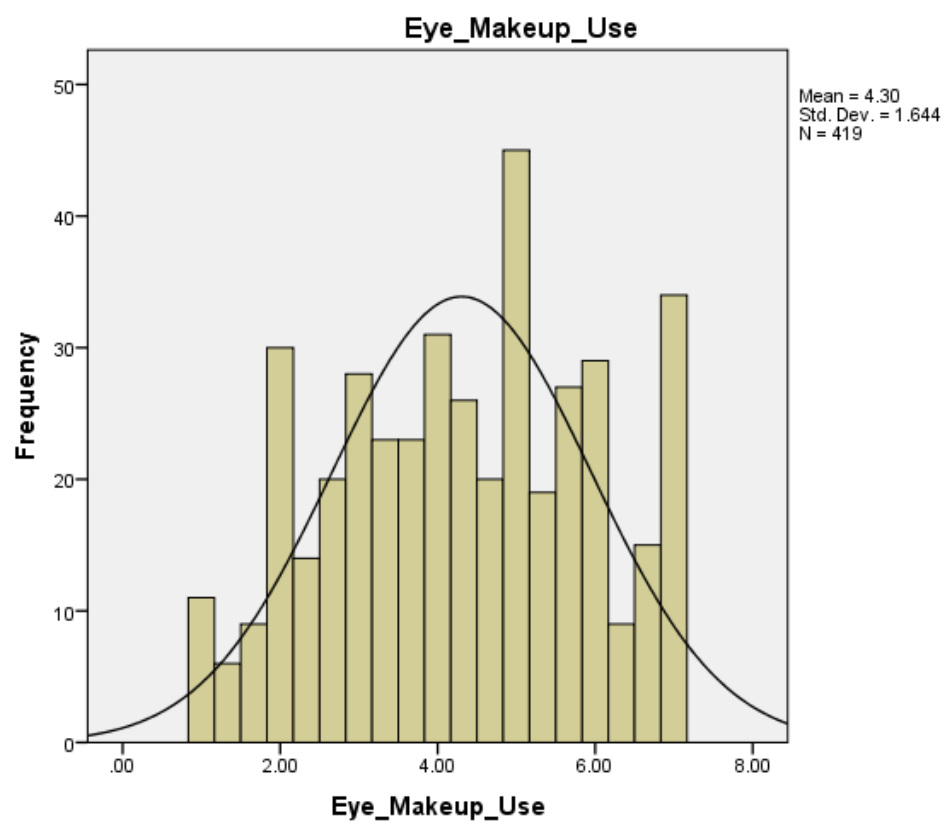
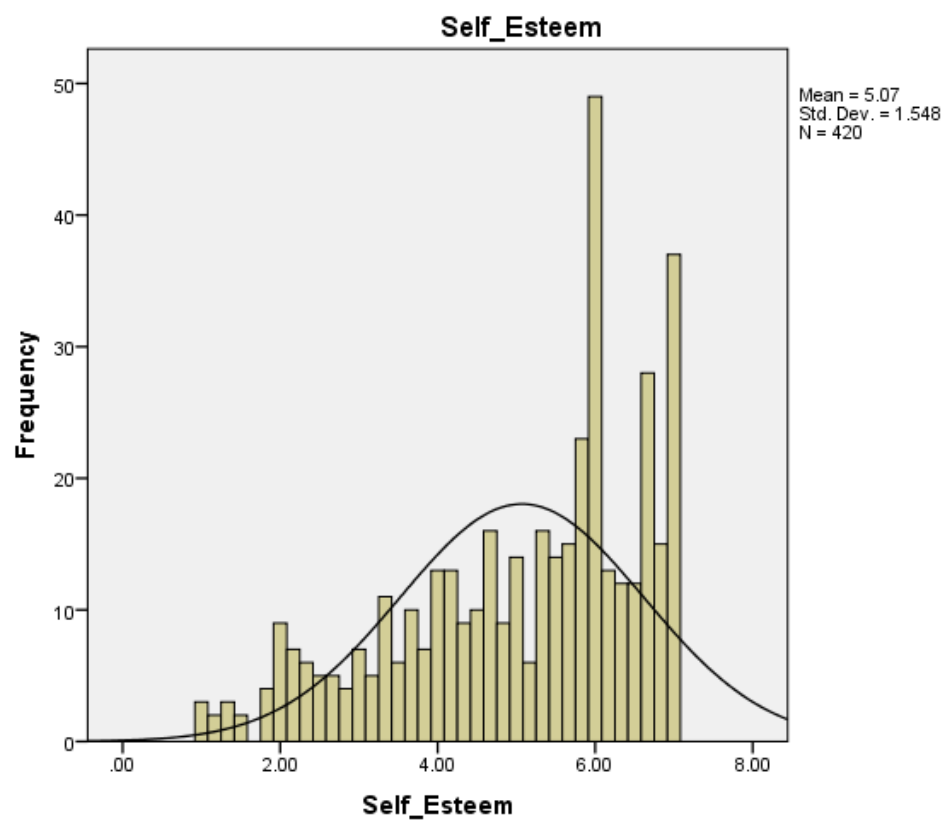


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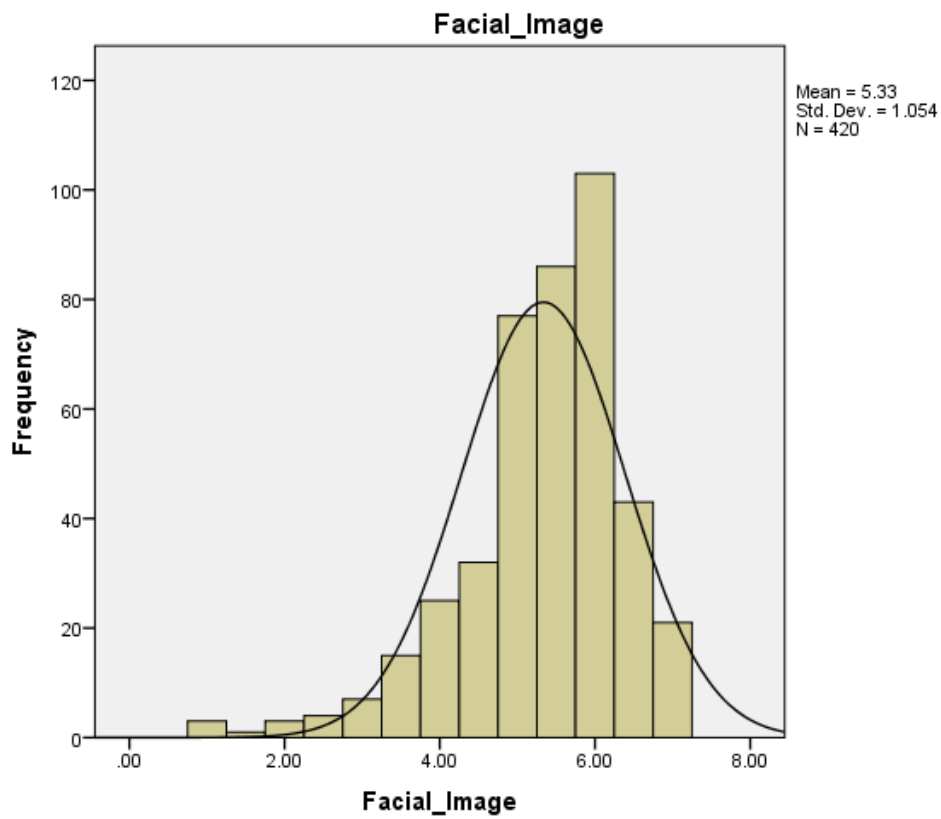
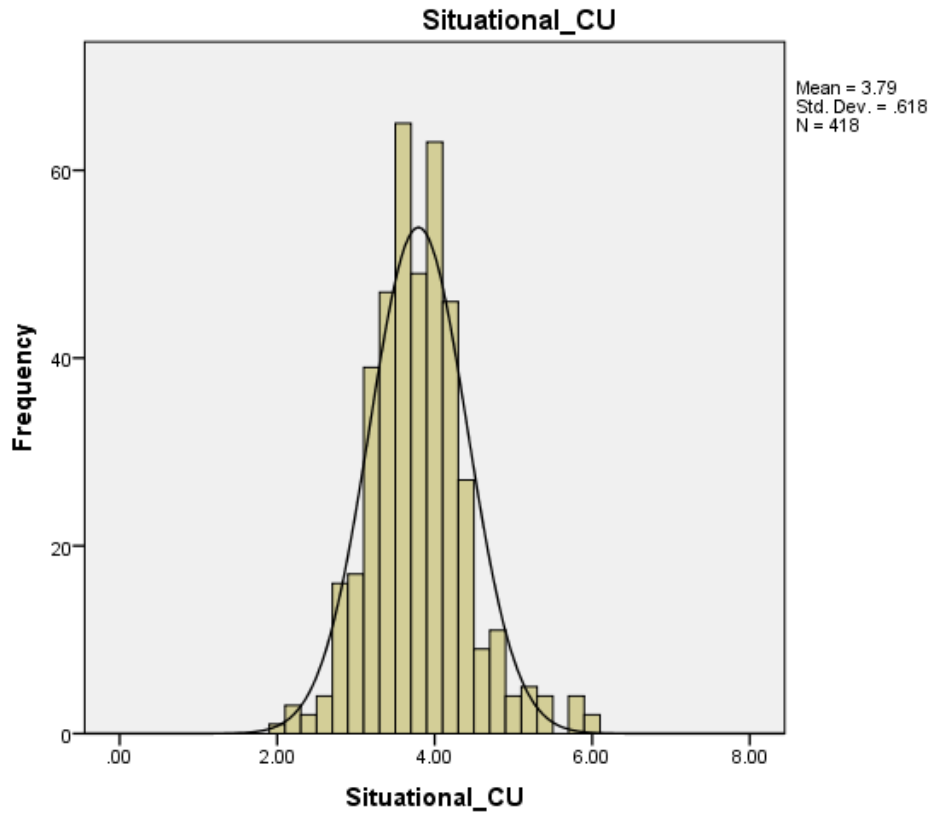
8.9.3 COVARIATE MEASURES



APPENDICES



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APPENDICES

